BOSTON PUBLIC LIBRARY
3 9999 06316 934 4
6.102:
084/
7

The United Nations Decade for Women, 1976-1985: Employment in the United States

JUL 6 1985
BOSTON PUBLIC LIBRARY

Report for
The World Conference on the
United Nations Decade for Women
1976-1985

U.S. Department of Labor
Office of the Secretary
Women's Bureau
July 1985

Material contained in this publication is in the public domain and may be reproduced, fully or partially, without permission of the Federal Government. Source credit is requested but not required. Permission is required only to reproduce any copyrighted material contained herein.

The United Nations Decade for Women, 1976-1985: Employment in the United States

Report for
The World Conference on the
United Nations Decade for Women
1976-1985

U.S. Department of Labor
William E. Brock, Secretary

Women's Bureau
Lenora Cole Alexander, Director

July 1985

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

SECRETARY OF LABOR
WASHINGTON, D.C.

A MESSAGE FROM THE SECRETARY OF LABOR

The Decade for Women, 1976-1985, has been a time of change and challenge in our Nation's labor force. The explosive increase in the number of women in the paid labor force has had a tremendous impact on our society. Whatever the reasons for this growth, it comes at a critical time. Steep competition in a global economy has challenged our Nation's capacity for efficient production. To compete, our Nation must make full use of all its human resources. That means women must have an opportunity to contribute in every occupation and at every level of business, industry, and government.

Today, there are vast numbers of women whose talents and capabilities are untapped. We can do better--as a government, as a Nation. Within the United States Department of Labor I count on the Women's Bureau to help us assure that the policy and programs of the Department properly address the needs of women in the labor force.

We must assure that women see the full measure of their talents recognized in every aspect of society. We must do that because it is right and because we cannot have a truly strong and secure future unless all our citizens have an opportunity to contribute, grow, and share in its rewards.

WILLIAM E. BROCK

FOREWORD

The culmination of the United Nations Decade for Women offers yet another opportunity to assess the status of women in the U.S. labor force. The Decade--from 1976 to 1985--also has afforded opportunities for people around the world to perceive a global view of the roles of women and of their participation in the activities of their respective nations. This special focus has precipitated the sharing of ideas and experiences as well as expertise and strategies--all to enhance the position of women by improving their employment and economic welfare.

The Women's Bureau has had a continuing concern about the employment opportunities and economic welfare of women for 65 years now, and we are especially pleased to have had a role in the series of events which focused attention on the status of women, beginning with International Women's Year (IWY) in 1975--a forerunner of the Decade. We recall also the IWY World Conference in Mexico City, Mexico, in June of that year. Then there was the U.S. (national) meeting in Houston, Texas, in November 1977, preceded by public meetings in the 50 States, the District of Columbia, and several territories. At mid-point in the Decade, the Women's Bureau reviewed the economic roles of U.S. women, policy developments, and contributions of nongovernmental organizations, and presented that report at the U.N. Mid-Decade Conference in Copenhagen, Denmark, in July 1980. And now this report, prepared for the end of the Decade World Conference in Nairobi, Kenya, in July 1985, consolidates developments that have occurred in the employment of women throughout the Decade.

This report takes a look backward to assess the progress women have made, and it takes a glance forward to consider how we might continue to build on those gains--gains that are defined not only in terms of statistics and policies and programs but also in terms of the contributions of organizations and institutions, labor and management, and government at all levels--all working independently or in partnership on countless efforts. Although this report on the employment of women is separated into six major parts, the sections are interrelated and must be viewed as a whole in order to arrive at a composite of the changes that occurred during the Decade for Women. Still, the effects of women's gains--or their lack of progress in some areas--extend far beyond the scope of this report.

As the United States and other U.N. member countries around the globe climax this special 10-year emphasis, we shall not, however, bring to a climax our policies and programs that are effective in moving women closer toward the goal of employment and economic security. We in this country shall continue to seek effective approaches toward fulfilling the

world and national plans of action which advocate that employment opportunities should be accessible to all women who are able to work and who want to work. Indeed, we shall continue our efforts toward the goals inherent in the mandate issued to the Women's Bureau by the U.S. Congress more than six decades ago. That responsibility, in effect, is to promote opportunities for women's profitable employment and to assist women in pursuing those options that lead toward economic well-being for themselves and their families. We believe that this report not only reflects evidence of progress in that direction but also provides insights into the need for new initiatives toward reaching that ultimate goal of full access to training and employment opportunities as well as to related support services such as child care.

We are pleased to share this report, and we hope it contributes toward a better understanding of the many aspects of women's employment in the United States.

Lenora Cole Alexander

LENORA COLE ALEXANDER
Director, Women's Bureau

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The Women's Bureau acknowledges the advice and assistance given cooperatively by agencies within the Department of Labor in the preparation of this publication. We especially thank the Office of the Solicitor, Occupational Safety and Health Administration, Employment and Training Administration, Office of Pension and Welfare Benefit Programs, and Bureau of Labor Statistics. Access to other large data bases included those of the Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, and the National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education. The assistance of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission is gratefully recognized.

We also wish to thank those nongovernmental organizations which so generously shared their annual reports or special publications on activities undertaken to enhance women's labor force status. The information which we extracted and summarized from these materials helped us present a more comprehensive view of the variety of programs and processes at all levels of U.S. society that work simultaneously to improve the employment of women.

Finally, we thank the many staff members of the Bureau who worked on the development of this report.

CONTENTS

	Page
A Message From the Secretary of Labor	iii
Foreword	iv
Acknowledgments	vi
A DECADE LATER: SUMMARY OF DEVELOPMENTS	1
Part 1. ECONOMIC ASPECTS	
Overview	7
Labor Force Status	8
Industry Changes	9
Occupational Trends	10
Earnings Differentials	12
Characteristics of Women Workers	13
Race/Ethnic Composition	13
Black Women	13
Hispanic Women	14
Other Minority Women	15
Age Composition	19
Young Women	19
Women of Prime Working Age	20
Older Women	20
Educational Attainment	21
Women in Families	23
Multiple-Earner Families	23
Women Who Maintain Families	25
Working Mothers	26
Childbearing and Labor Force Participation	28
Women in Poverty	28
Other Labor Force Segments	30
Women Business Owners	30
Women in Apprenticeship	31
Women Living on Farms	33
Disabled Women	33
Women in Labor Organizations	35
Part 2. POLICY DEVELOPMENT	
Overview	39
Bases for Equal Employment Opportunity	39
Access to Better Jobs	41
Skilled Trades	41
Voluntary Affirmative Action	41
Women in the Armed Forces	42
Women Business Owners	43

Education and Training for Better Jobs 44
Job Training 44
Vocational Education 46
The Academies of the Armed Services 47
Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 47
Pay Equity 47
Litigation 48
Initiatives by State Legislatures 49
Initiatives by Trade Unions 49
Initiatives by Employers 49
Retirement Income Programs 50
Private Pension Plans 50
Sex-Based Actuarial Tables 51
Social Security 52
Policy Support for Day Care Services 53
Child and Dependent Care Tax Credit for Workers 53
Tax Incentives for Employers 53
Dependent Care Assistance Programs 54
Other Tax Incentives 54
Other Federal Supports for Day Care 54
Pregnancy and Working Women 55
Occupational Safety and Health 57
Sexual Harassment 60
Equal Rights Under the Law 61
International Policy Emphasis on Women 61

Part 3. RESEARCH ACTIVITIES OF THE WOMEN'S BUREAU
Objectives 65
Research Focus and Findings 65
Impact of Technological Change 65
Immigrant, Refugee, and Entrant Women 66
Career Transitions of Women in Professions 67
Impact of Job Dislocation 68
Transferability of Military Occupational Skills 68

Part 4. PROGRAM COMPONENTS AND MECHANISMS USED BY THE WOMEN'S BUREAU TO IMPROVE EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES
Overview 73
Program Components 74
Outreach 75
Recruitment 75
Counseling, Assessment, and Test Preparation 76
Training Referral 77
Skills Training 77
Job Development and Placement 77
Followup 78
Physical Fitness 78

Program Evaluation 78
Indicators of Program Effectiveness 78
Evaluation Objectives 79
Mechanisms of Change 79
Employer-Sponsored Child Care Strategies 80
Youth Programs 81
School-to-Work Transition: WINC (Women in Nontraditional Careers) 81
Adolescent Mothers 82
National Initiative on the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) 83
Women in Apprenticeship Initiative 83
Displaced Homemakers Network 84
Project Discovery 85
High Technology Training for Single Heads of Households . . 85
National Job Fair Initiative 85
Coal Employment Project 86
National Women's Employment and Education Project 86
Business Development 87
Enterprise Training Centers: Occupational Development for Utah's Rural Displaced Homemakers 87
Start on Success (SOS) Program 87
Corporate Women 87
Corporate Linkage Project 87
Institute for the Advancement of Black Females in Corporations 88
Corporate Governance and the Advancement of Women . . . 88
Women Offenders 89
Apprenticeship Project 89
Network on Female Offenders 90
Rural Women 90
Project IDEA (Individual Development and Entrepreneurial Activities) 90
Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway Construction Project . . . 90
Women's Opportunity Program 91
Appalachian Women's Employment Information Project . . . 91
Immigrant/Refugee Women 91
Job Training in Food Services 91
Asian/Pacific American (APA) Women's Employment Project 92
Union Women's Project 92
Commissions on the Status of Women 92
Symposia 93

Part 5. INITIATIVES OF NONGOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS
Introduction 97
Examples of Organizations, Groups Served, and Activities 98

Part 6. FUTURE DIRECTIONS
Overview 109
Labor Force Projections 110
Industrial Outlook 111
Occupational Outlook 112
Educational Requirements 112
Training Needs 114
Young Workers 115
Older Workers 116
Policy Outlook 117

APPENDIXES
Tabular Data Related to Women's Labor Force Activities 121
Key Provisions in Federal Legislation and Regulations Affecting Women During the Decade 141
Selected References 149

A DECADE LATER: SUMMARY OF DEVELOPMENTS

The employment developments that transpired during the Decade for Women, 1976-1985, characterize that period as a time of change--not only for women working or seeking to enter the labor force but also for industrial processes and business operations. Women provided a major source of labor required for the production of goods and services to accommodate an expanding population. At the same time, new technology, especially computer-based operations, increasingly changed the traditional procedures and processes throughout most industries and offices in the Nation. There also was a shift away from a dominance of employment in manufacturing, particularly heavy industries, to more rapid expansion in services of all kinds.

While there were singular achievements denoting firsts for women--the first female astronaut in the United States launched into space and the first woman appointed to the U.S. Supreme Court are examples--as a group women made modest but significant progress during the Decade. Further, there were a number of promising trends indicating continued and perhaps more rapid progress in the coming years.

Employment of women progressed both in terms of numbers working and in the quality of jobs accessible. Women were able to consolidate gains attributable to many factors; among them, the creation of new jobs in the economy, higher educational attainment and more adequate training than in the past, and the effects of laws and regulations enacted earlier as well as during the Decade.

Women contributed more than 62 percent of the total growth of the U.S. civilian labor force between 1975 and 1984, as their numbers rose from 37 million to 50 million. By 1984, 54 percent of all women 16 years of age and over were working or looking for work. In the prime working age group 25 to 54, nearly 70 percent were in the labor force. The female labor force grew more diverse in its race/ethnic composition. In addition to white, black, and Hispanic women, more than 2 million minorities, mainly of Asian descent and including recent immigrants and refugees, were in the labor force at mid-Decade in 1980.

A large proportion of women entering the labor force joined the ranks of other women in traditional occupations in which most women have worked, for example, clerical work, nursing, teaching below the college level, and apparel sales. But women also increased their presence in the nontraditional areas of work, particularly in management, professions such as law and engineering, police protection, and the skilled trades including carpentry and automobile mechanics.

Increasing numbers of women were attracted to options in business ownership. Supported by national policies developed to encourage expansion of business opportunities for those with limited experience and/or capital, more women viewed entrepreneurship as a viable economic opportunity.

In education a number of promising trends were evident. Overall, the educational attainment of women continued to rise throughout the Decade. More specifically, fewer young women dropped out of school before obtaining a high school diploma. Furthermore, increasing proportions not only graduated from high school but continued on to college. Women now account for more than half of the enrollments in institutions of higher education. No longer are virtually all college women focusing upon the traditional fields like education and home economics, they are broadening their career horizons to include the fields of business and management, medicine, and the physical sciences, among others. More women also are pursuing advanced degrees. While most doctoral degrees earned by women are in traditional fields, the number awarded to women in nontraditional areas continues to increase. As a prerequisite to diversifying in their fields of study in college, young women in high school are studying more mathematics, chemistry, and related courses than in the past. All of these educational developments are viewed as very positive signs because women's employment status in the United States is affected greatly by their educational attainment.

Another side of the educational and training picture, however, relates to rapidly changing technology in the workplace, creating new jobs while others become obsolete. Obviously this raises implications for educational processes in institutions that prepare people for jobs, and points to the continuing need for training and retraining workers. The large numbers of women in clerical and other administrative support occupations are especially affected, but computer-based technologies for information processing as well as for mechanical operations are having far-reaching effects throughout most industries and many occupations.

Women workers did not attain earnings parity with their male counterparts during the Decade, but the earnings gap between women and men who worked at full-time jobs year round narrowed by 5 percentage points between 1975 and 1983. While there are a number of factors affecting the earnings differential, there is general agreement that women's lower earnings are attributable, in part, to their concentrated employment in the lower paying industries and occupations. As increasing numbers of women disperse into jobs that offer higher pay for higher levels of skills and responsibilities, the earnings differential is expected to shrink further.

Among the most notable trends in the employment of women was the dramatic rise in the number of working mothers--both single and married--reaching nearly 20 million in 1984. Most employed mothers worked full time, even when their youngest child was under 3 years of age. It is clear that both the married mothers in husband-wife families and the

single mothers who have sole responsibility for the economic welfare of their families need the support of child care services in order to carry out their commitment to responsibilities at home and in the workplace.

A significant number of actions were taken to respond to the increasing child care need. They included: the White House Private Sector Initiative to encourge corporations to take a lead role, a number of regional and national initiatives by the Women's Bureau resulting in greater public awareness and greater involvement of employers, enactment of tax incentives for employer-provided child care, advocacy efforts as well as services by nongovernmental organizations, and various forms of support from unions and individual employers.

The number of women who maintain families (10.3 million in 1984) continued to increase during the Decade. The proportion in the labor force also increased--from 54 percent in 1975 to 61 percent in 1984. Yet, the general characteristics of marginal earnings and high unemployment among women who maintain families account in part for the fact that almost half of all poor persons live in families headed by women. This complex issue continued to be addressed on several fronts.

The Women's Bureau initiated a number of experimental training and employment programs to assist low income women and others who face distinctive barriers to employment, including rural women, single heads of households, female offenders, minority women, displaced homemakers, teen women, and mature women. Clearly, low income/poor women are reflected among all these groups. The projects developed for these segments had the two-fold objective of increasing the base of knowledge about specific needs and demonstrating better techniques in meeting those needs. There was awareness, however, that permanently effective means of opening better jobs to women must involve working with employers in changing their policies and systems to be more attuned to the capabilities as well as needs of women workers. Thus, in addition to activities addressing the concerns of selected groups of women, the Bureau advocated institutional change and the need for established service deliverers to maximize the opportunities they provide.

Research studies initiated by the Women's Bureau during the Decade were designed also to find answers to questions about effective ways to improve opportunities for women in various employment situations. The results of the research, being completed near the end of the Decade, will be used to develop policy positions and to recommend legislation and programs that address women's employment and training needs.

A number of major laws affecting the employment of women were on the books prior to the Decade for Women. There was a need, however, to clarify the application of the law to certain situations. Admendments and guidelines clarified policy relating to apprenticeship, pensions and social security, discrimination against pregnant workers, child care for working parents, and sexual harassment, among other areas. A major accomplishment was the systematic review by Federal agencies of the

entire United States Code and regulations to identify any instances of sex discrimination. Many States took similar action.

Nongovernmental organizations continued to play a significant role in improving employment opportunities. There was a trend toward the forming of networks and the coalescing of organizations to work toward similar goals. But whether the groups worked independently or in partnerships, the diversity of nongovernmental activities at the local, regional, and national levels of U.S. society resulted in a wide range of approaches to assist women. While some organizations provided direct services such as child care, others played an advocacy role to give visibility to an issue, such as the concerns of displaced homemakers, and to urge that concerns be addressed.

This review of women's employment a decade later points strongly to the importance of concerted efforts by all sectors of society--employers, unions, educational institutions, nongovernmental organizations, government at all levels, and individuals. Their activities in response to changes in the lifestyles of women and of their families and to changes in the job market have helped to facilitate the entry of women into the labor force and into jobs of increasingly higher skill, responsibility, and pay. From this perspective, and based on promising educational and occupational trends, employment prospects for women in the United States are encouraging.

Part I. Economic Aspects

Part 1. ECONOMIC ASPECTS

OVERVIEW

Perhaps no other social change has had more far reaching implications for the U.S. society and economy than the dramatic increase in the labor force participation of women. During the 10-year period between 1975 and 1984, the civilian labor force grew by 21 percent and women contributed more than three-fifths (62 percent) of this total growth. As a result, the proportion of the Nation's labor force comprised of women rose from 40 to 44 percent over the period.

The numerical growth in the female labor force, however, is not an accurate gauge for measuring the progress of women over the Decade. Trends in their employment in occupations and industries, their training and educational attainment, earnings, and family responsibilities are among the factors that must be analyzed in order to present a complete picture.

During the Decade, more and more women turned toward occupations that long have been the province of men. Women increased their presence in executive, administrative, and managerial occupations; in nontraditional professions such as engineering; and in skilled craft and precision production jobs, such as electricians. Indeed, these occupational categories generally command high wages for the high level of skill and responsibility required, and thus suggest progress for women. On the other hand, women remained highly concentrated in major occupational groups that historically have been the province of women, such as clerical and other administrative support jobs.

Increasing numbers of women considered business ownership as a viable career opportunity and worklife option. Female operated firms increased at a greater rate than male operated businesses. However, women's firms remained largely in the traditional areas of retail stores and personal services--businesses of the type and size that produce low net incomes.

Although there was a slight narrowing of the earnings differential during the Decade, women workers did not approach earnings parity with men, even when they worked in similar occupations. In 1975 the median earnings of women who worked at full-time jobs throughout the year were 59 percent of the amount that similarly employed men earned. In 1983 women earned 64 percent. Despite this promising trend, women remain employed, to a great extent, in jobs that yield relatively low earnings--generally in lower paying industries such as clothing manufacturing; in the lower paying professions such as teaching; and in the lower paying

service and clerical-type jobs. This traditional pattern of concentration in lower paying occupations and industries still persists even though women workers, on average, have completed about the same number of years of school as men. Increasing numbers of women are completing high school and going on to college. In fact, women now account for more than half of the enrollments in institutions of higher education.

The number of women who maintain families alone continued to rise, along with the number of both married and single working mothers. Responsibility for the economic welfare of families, which so many women have, obviously contributes to the poverty among female-headed families. Characteristics of women workers who head families include higher unemployment, lower educational attainment, more dependent children, and lower earnings when compared with other labor force groups, and explain in part the high incidence of poverty in families maintained by women.

A record number of mothers--close to 20 million--are workers today. The dramatic increase in the labor force participation of mothers implies that the need for child care has increased, and underscores the reality of child care as a major concern of working women. By the time the youngest child was 3 years old, nearly 60 percent of all married mothers were in the labor force in 1984. Furthermore, most of these employed mothers worked full time.

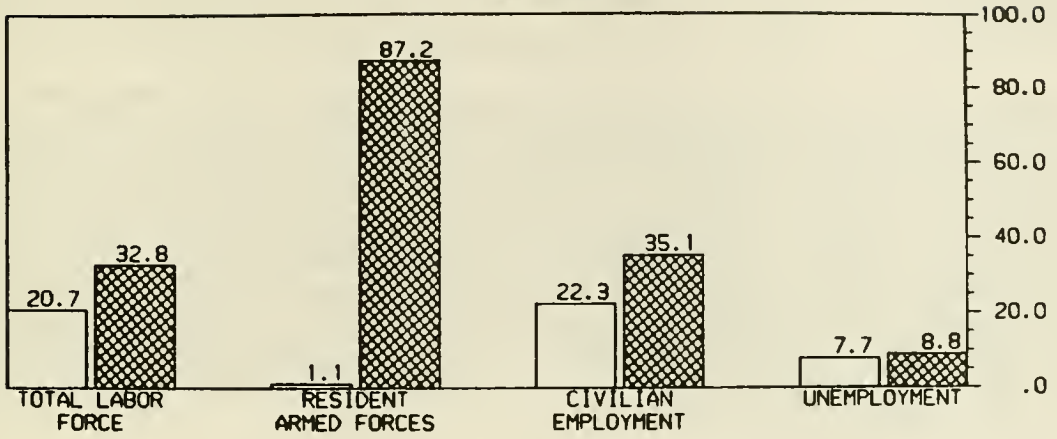
These highlights reflect some of the information in Part 1 and in the Appendix tables. They indicate trends and developments that occurred during the Decade, and provide some insight into the economic aspects of women's employment in the United States.

LABOR FORCE STATUS

The Decade for Women began with an economic recovery that lasted until mid-Decade in 1980, when it was cut off by a recession, quickly followed by a second in 1981-82 that was the most severe since the Great Depression of the 1930's. During the first half of the Decade, the labor force participation of women increased and women's unemployment rate dropped. In the second half, women's population, labor force, and employment continued to expand but at a slower rate than during the first half. The rapid influx of the baby boom generation into the working age population slowed, and women's unemployment rates rose as a consequence of the two recessions in the second half of the Decade. Still, the number of employed women continued to grow.

The number of women age 16 and over in the civilian labor force (working or looking for work) increased from 37 million in 1975 to almost 50 million in 1984, accounting for more than 12 million of the total growth of nearly 20 million U.S. workers. As these gains were made, the labor force participation rate for women (labor force as a percentage of population) increased from 46 percent to 54 percent.

PERCENTAGE CHANGE IN EMPLOYMENT STATUS
1975-84



SOURCE: BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.

Women's unemployment rates fluctuated during the Decade paralleling the business cycle. During the second half, the unemployment rate for women peaked at 10.3 percent in December 1982, subsequently falling to 7.6 percent in 1984. The unemployment rate for women is usually higher than for men, and the gap between them tends to widen during periods of economic growth and to narrow during periods of retrenchment. Between 1970 and 1981, the female unemployment rate averaged 1.5 percentage points higher than the male rate. In 1982 during the recession, however, the gap not only narrowed, it reversed when the male unemployment rate (9.9 percent) exceeded the female rate (9.4 percent) for the first time. With the subsequent recovery, the relationship between the unemployment rates of men and women reverted to the original configuration when the unemployment rate for women again became higher than that for men. Part of the explanation for this phenomenon is that the recessionary impacts were felt primarily in the male-dominated, goods-producing industries and with the recovery these industries have become less labor intensive, contributing to the continued closeness of the unemployment rates for women and men. Women, in contrast, were concentrated primarily in service-producing industries where the effect of the recession was less severe and men also were obtaining jobs in that sector. (See Appendix table 1.)

Industry Changes

Between 1975 and 1984, shifts in the industrial distribution of employed persons in the United States continued toward service-producing industries. The highest growth industries numerically were services;

wholesale and retail trade; and finance, insurance, and real estate. These industries also accounted for the largest absolute increases for employed women. Further, the rate of employment growth for women exceeded the total rate of employment growth in each of these industries.

Slower growth occurred in manufacturing, construction, transportation and public utilities, and mining, while employment in public administration remained relatively stable. The rate of employment for women, however, grew more rapidly in these sectors than did the rate of total employment. Women in mining and construction registered the largest percentage increases, when compared with total employment growth, though their actual numbers remain small. Nonetheless, women still remained concentrated in industries where they have been traditionally employed. About two-thirds of all women work in the service and retail trade industries and in State and local governments, while only about 1 in 6 works in a goods-producing industry.

Slightly more than 3 percent of all workers in the United States are employed in agriculture. Although the number of persons in this industry declined somewhat since 1975, the number of women in agriculture grew. There were about 654,000 women employed as farm workers in 1984, representing 20 percent of all farm workers--an increase from 17 percent in 1975. Only about 1 percent of all women workers, however, were employed in agriculture. (Appendix table 2 is a source of further data on recent trends in the employment of women in various industries.)

Occupational Trends

A significant change for women during the Decade was their increased representation among the executive, administrative, and managerial occupations. Whereas in 1975 women constituted only 22 percent of this group, by 1984 the female share had risen to 34 percent. Women still were underrepresented in comparison with their overall participation in the labor force.

In occupational groups, such as certain professional specialties, technical jobs, and sales occupations, the proportion of women workers mirrors their proportion of the total labor force and increases for women about matched the increase for women workers as a whole. Although these major occupational groups appear rather sex-neutral, great variations occur at more detailed occupational levels. For example, about three-fifths of women in the professional specialties are nurses and teachers below the college level.

During the Decade there was very little change in major occupational groups with very high proportions of women--secretaries and private household work. Even today, 98 percent of all secretaries are women. Private household work, however, continued to decline as a source of employment, especially for young black women.

(See the section on "Women in Apprenticeship" for additional data on progress made by women in the skilled blue-collar trades. Also, Appendix table 3 provides data for 1975 and 1984 on the proportion of women workers in the major occupational groups.)

A review of the detailed occupations that women hold within the major groups provides better insight into changes that have occurred in recent years. For example, of the 20 occupations in which most women worked during the Decade there was a dispersal of women among a wider range of occupations, but most women continue to be employed in the same traditional jobs. Within the list some occupations, such as assemblers, packers and wrappers, and food counter and fountain workers, have declined in number, while others have dropped from the list because of changes in manufacturing processes and the movement of some industries offshore. (See Appendix table 4.)

Secretarial work is still the largest occupation of women, just as it was at the beginning of the Decade. Typing, bookkeeping, and other office clerical work remain options for many women. A brief discussion of how these jobs are being affected by new technology is in Part 6, Future Directions, under "Training Needs." A sign of progress of women moving into nontraditional employment is the addition of accounting and auditing among the 20 leading occupations of women. Women were 41 percent of all such employees in 1984. Another sign of women's expansion into the full range of occupations is the fact that in 1976 more than half of all employed women were in the 20 occupations; as of 1984, 46.5 percent of all women were in these jobs.

In general, women's occupational patterns change slowly. The employment patterns of women in 1978 indicated that for the first half of the Decade only 9.9 percent held traditionally male jobs, 21.1 percent held jobs that are not sex stereotyped, and 68.5 percent held jobs dominated by women, based on 420 detailed occupations. A similar estimate of women's employment in the 514 detailed occupations in the 1980 Census shows much the same pattern--9.5 percent in male-dominated jobs, 21 percent in sex-neutral jobs, and 69 percent in female-dominated jobs. A look at some of the detailed occupations provides some clues. Since 1980 the lower proportions of women in some nontraditional jobs in the manufacturing sector suggest that competition from international trade and the recent recession caused the loss of some of these jobs as work forces were reduced, and they may not have been reemployed in the same kinds of work. Examples, shown in the table of selected detailed occupations, include assemblers, production testers, and electrical and electronic equipment repairers. (See Appendix table 5.)

On the other hand, women have continued to make inroads into the nontraditional jobs. Examples are lathe and turning machine operators, optical goods workers, police and detectives, economists, architects, and engineers, among many others. Again, where women have been traditionally employed, they have retained their majority and, in some cases, increased

their virtual monopoly in occupations such as apparel sales workers, registered nurses, and financial records processing clerks.

Earnings Differentials

American working women do not earn as much as working men. Using year-round full-time workers as the basis for comparison, a woman of age 25 or over with 4 or more years of college in 1983 earned 64 percent as much as a similar man. In fact, she did not receive as much as a man with a high school diploma. This relationship has remained essentially unchanged over time. Some of the explanations of this are that women enter and leave the labor force more frequently than do men, resulting in less work experience; women's educational attainment and skills training are not equal to men's; and women and men are concentrated in different occupations that pay differently.

Recent research has been trying to explain why earnings differences should persist when the educational gap between women and men has shrunk and when there are more women than ever before working full time and year round. After all measurable variables are included in an equation on earnings differences for women and men, the variance that cannot be explained is attributed to unmeasured factors such as discrimination, personal attitudes, or quality of education.

Another important issue is the pay differential between men and women in the same or similar occupations. Although the male-female earnings ratios vary considerably among occupations, women's earnings rarely approach parity with men's even in the same occupational group except in those with narrowly defined skill levels within the same establishment. Further, in occupations that are traditionally female, such as most clerical jobs, men's earnings have been consistently higher than women's earnings.

In 1980 the largest earnings gap occurred in sales occupations, in which women earned only 49 percent of men's salaries. In 1983 women sales workers' earnings were only 55 percent of men's earnings in the same field. One explanation for this is the difference in areas of sales; that is, men are more likely than women to be selling expensive items such as cars, large appliances, and jewelry, and thus make larger commissions, whereas women are largely employed in sales of nondurables like apparel and food products. Almost a third of the men in sales but less than a tenth of the women earned $500 or more per week in 1983.

Despite an increase in the proportion of women in managerial occupations, their salaries in relation to men's have remained stable since 1970. Though women are a small proportion of laborers, they have the lowest wage differential--76 percent in 1980. Next to laborers, salaries of women in professional occupations are closest to those of men--66 cents for each dollar earned by men. (Additional data on earnings differentials are in Appendix tables 6 and 7.)

CHARACTERISTICS OF WOMEN WORKERS

Race/Ethnic Composition

The social and cultural diversity among the various racial and ethnic groups is mirrored in the labor market experience of women. Historically, black and some other minority women have been more likely to work than white women. However, over the Decade, the labor force participation rate for white women grew much more rapidly than for minority women, and by 1984 there was little difference between their overall participation rate--53 percent and 55 percent, respectively. (See Appendix table 8.) The rapid increase in labor force participation of white women occurred mainly among 25 to 49 year olds, the primary childbearing and family-forming years.

Black Women

Black women made advances in many socio-economic areas over the last decade. A decade ago, well over half of black women had not finished high school; by 1984, only two-fifths had not completed high school. However, despite their increasing educational attainment and their strong and continued labor force experience, black women are still more likely than white women to be unemployed, to be in low-paying jobs, and to account for a larger proportion of the poor.

Black women of working age (16 years and over) numbered 10.7 million in 1984, up from 8.7 million in 1975. About 5.9 million of these women, or 55 percent, were in the civilian labor force--an increase since 1975 when only 4.2 million black women, or about 49 percent, were workers.

Except for the two recessions in the early 1980's, the unemployment rate for white women has declined since 1975, while the unemployment rate for black women has continued to rise. The number of unemployed black women grew at a faster rate than the number entering the labor force. More than 910,000 women 16 years of age and over, or 15.4 percent, were unemployed in 1984--up from 629,000 or 14.8 percent, in 1975. Unemployment among black teenage women, at 42.6 percent, is nearly three times the rate of white teenage women (15.2 percent).

There has been some improvement in the occupational status of employed women. Between 1970 and 1982, black women increased their proportions in many professional and technical jobs, including accountants, nurses, dieticians, therapists, engineering and science technicians, and vocational and educational counselors. Although progress has been limited, both the numbers and proportions of black women in sales, management and administration, and administrative support positions have increased since 1970. Between 1973 and 1984, the number of black women in sales rose by 17 percent, managers by 15 percent, and administrative support by a modest 7 percent. Some inroads were made into blue-collar occupations such as bus drivers, delivery persons, and truck drivers.

Their proportion in service occupations continued to decline, reflecting the continuous movement of black women out of private household work. (Data on the educational gains made by black women workers are in the discussion on "Educational Attainment.")

Black women who worked year round, full time in 1983 approached income parity with their white counterparts ($13,000 compared with $14,677). However, black family income ($14,506) remained considerably less than the income of white families ($25,757). The incidence of poverty is greater among black families than among white families and is especially prevalent among families headed by women, a group which rose sharply over the Decade. Of black families headed by women, 53.8 percent had incomes below the poverty level compared with 28.3 percent of similar white families.

Hispanic Women

Women age 16 and over of Hispanic origin numbered 5.7 million in 1984. The largest sub-groups were women of Mexican origin (3.2 million), followed by women of Puerto Rican origin (862,000), and Cuban origin (426,000). The remaining 1.2 million Hispanic women were of Central and South American origin.

Among all Hispanic women, about 50 percent were in the labor force in 1984--somewhat lower than the rate for all women (54 percent). This overall rate obscures differences among the various Hispanic ethnic groups, and mainly reflects the rate for women of Mexican origin. Puerto Rican women had the lowest rate at 38 percent, compared with a high of 55 percent among Cuban women, and 51 percent for Mexican women.

The unemployment rate for Hispanic women decreased over the Decade by almost 2 percentage points. However, it still remains about 3.5 percentage points above that for all women. Cuban women have achieved the most significant reduction in unemployment. In 1976 their jobless rate was almost 1.5 percentage points higher than that of all women; by 1984 the rate had declined to almost 1 percentage point lower than that for all women and for all U.S. workers.

Hispanic women as a group lag behind other women in the years of school completed, although younger Hispanic women are narrowing this gap. In 1984 Hispanic women in the population had completed 11.4 years of school compared with 12.6 years for all women. Consequently, labor force participation, which is closely associated with educational attainment, was lower and unemployment was higher for Hispanic women than for all women. Data showing that the educational attainment of Hispanic women workers is higher than for Hispanics in the population are under "Educational Attainment."

In 1984 about 810,000 Hispanic families (23 percent) were maintained by women. More than half (54 percent) of these families had incomes in

1983 which placed them below the U.S. poverty level as compared with 36 percent of all families maintained by women.

Although the 1983 median income of Hispanic women with year round full-time jobs was lower ($11,874) than that of similar white women ($14,479), Hispanic women in professional occupations had median earnings not significantly different from other women--over $17,000 in 1982. The Hispanic women in these jobs were more likely to be Cuban, who had the highest educational attainment among Hispanics. (Appendix table 9 is on the employment status of U.S. Hispanic women in 1984 compared with 1976.)

Other Minority Women

In addition to white, black, and Hispanic women, about 2 million Asian and Pacific Islanders and American Indians comprise most of the remainder of the female labor force in the United States. They represent a small but growing segment of the female labor force. However, with the exception of limited employment statistics compiled by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, very little reliable detailed information exists on these small worker groups other than the 1980 Census. The Census data are used in this section. While more information has been available about the American Indian populations, little information has been accumulated about the experiences of Asian women, many of whom immigrated to the United States from Southeast Asia during the Decade. The Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor recently completed a series of dialogues with some of these immigrant women to learn of their concerns and needs. A summary of the findings of that study is under "Research Activities of the Women's Bureau."

While their experiences vary depending upon the length of time they have been in the country, where they live, and their acculturation and assimilation abilities, many of the women from the smaller minority groups share similar experiences, barriers, and needs in the labor market. Some of their particular problems, however, have been addressed through programs designed especially to address their unique status. Several of those programs are described in Part 4 of this report under "Mechanisms of Change."

American Indian Women.--The quarter of a million Native American women in the labor force in 1980 represented nearly half of all American Indian women ages 16 and over. More than half of all mothers were in the labor force. Some 56 percent of these mothers had children of school age and 44 percent had preschoolers. Nearly half of all married women were either working or looking for work, and they made up half the Indian women's segment of the labor force. Almost 40 percent of American Indian women worked full time at year-round jobs.

Some 18,000 households maintained by women, representing well over 40 percent of all families in poverty, had incomes below the official

poverty level in 1979. Even in those families where the woman householder worked, a third did not earn sufficient income to rise above the poverty level.

American Indian women's limited educational attainment also limits their employment options. Next to Eskimo women (43 percent), Native American women had the lowest proportion of high school graduates (54 percent). The leading occupations of American Indian women were as secretaries, stenographers and typists, food service workers, unskilled or semiskilled machine operators and tenders, management related jobs, elementary and secondary school teachers, and cleaning and building service workers. Nearly two-thirds were employed as private wage and salary workers, but fully a third were employed in government, more often at the Federal and local levels.

Eskimo and Aleut women are even smaller segments of the Native American women in the labor force and share an even more isolated existence in the far reaches of the country. Most of those who are employed live in urban areas. About half the Eskimo women who are employed work for the government but two-thirds of Aleut women work in private industry.

About a fifth of the families are supported solely by women and most of these families contain children. A large proportion of these mothers, even though they work, still do not earn above the poverty level.

Japanese Women.--About 2 of every 5 Japanese women 16 years old and over, 190,000, were in the labor force in 1980. The overwhelming majority, 79.5 percent, had completed at least high school, and the median educational attainment for both women and men was higher than the median for the Nation. Attesting to their job readiness, women's unemployment rate in 1980 of 3.3 percent was the lowest of any of the minority worker groups.

Only about 30 percent of the women in the labor force had children under 18 years old. Two of every three, however, were married with husbands present; almost half the wives had minor children. Two-thirds of all married-couple families had two or more earners, and their median annual family income at over $29,000 was one of the highest by marital status.

Approximately 12 percent of Japanese families were maintained by women without husbands, and 3 of every 4 of these women worked. Of those who worked, less than 10 percent had incomes below the poverty level. The vast majority of those in poverty, however, had children under 18 years old. Of the very small proportion of families in poverty, more than 2 of every 5 were supported solely by women.

Almost half the women who worked were employed full time year round. More than 70 percent worked in private industry and most of the rest worked in State and local government. Nearly half the women were employed in technical, sales, and administrative support occupations including a large contingent working as technologists, technicians, and

secretaries, and in financial sales and recordkeeping. Other significant occupations were in the health professions, teaching, food services, and factory operative and assembly work.

Chinese Women.--About 313,000 Chinese women were in the labor force as of 1980. Although virtually all of them worked at some time in 1979, fewer than a fourth worked full time throughout the year. More than 67 percent of Chinese women 25 years or older had completed high school.

Fewer than 10 percent of Chinese families were maintained by women with no husband present. Of those, more than two-fifths had minor children. Although more than 7 of every 10 women in such circumstances worked in 1979, still almost 1 in every 5 had an income below the poverty level.

The overwhelming majority of women worked in private industry. About 6.5 percent each were employed in State and local government and as self-employed or unpaid family workers. Some 15 percent of Chinese women worked as machine operators and tenders, except precision. Other occupations where large numbers found employment were food service jobs, cashiers, financial records processing, technologist and technician jobs, health occupations, teaching, and management-related occupations.

Vietnamese Women.--Although a majority of the Vietnamese have come to the United States between 1975 and 1980, nearly half of the women ages 16 and over, about 75,000, were in the labor force--working or looking for work--in 1980. One in four was a mother. Just over half of all wives with husbands present were participants in the labor force and almost 80 percent were mothers of minor children.

Only 15 percent of Vietnamese families were maintained by women alone; nearly 70 percent included children. More than half these women family supporters worked in 1979 but a third of those who worked earned less than the poverty level. More than a third of all families were in poverty in 1979, highest by far of any of the Asian/Pacific Islanders; two-fifths of all children under 18 were in poverty.

Almost 9 of every 10 employed women worked in private wage and salary jobs. Two-fifths worked full time year round in 1979. Only 11 percent of all employed women worked in management or professional specialty occupations. A third were in technical, sales and administrative support jobs; nearly another third worked as machine operators, fabricators, and laborers. About one-tenth worked in food services.

Asian Indian Women.--Somewhat less than half of all Asian Indian women 16 years and older--140,000--were working or looking for work in 1980. Just over a third of them were wives, and they represented just over half of all wives in married-couple families. Almost 70 percent of the wives in the labor force were also mothers of children under 18 years old.

Less than 6 percent of families were supported solely by women; somewhat less than half included minor children. Three-fifths of the women family supporters worked in 1979; still, one-fifth earned less than the poverty level. This type of family, however, represented less than a fifth of all Asian Indian families in poverty.

Nearly three-quarters of Asian Indian women had at least a high school diploma, but the labor force participation rate of 47 percent was somewhat low compared with women of other Asian descent. Almost four-fifths of the workers were employed in private industry. Fully a third were employed in management and professional specialty occupations, more than half of these in health professions. One-fourth worked in administrative support occupations largely as secretaries, other clerical workers, and as financial records processors. Other important sources of employment were service occupations and operative and fabricator jobs.

Pilipino Women*.--About 200,000 Pilipino women, or 68 percent of those ages 16 and over, were in the labor force in 1980. The labor force participation rate of Pilipino women was the highest of any of the Asian and Pacific Islander ethnic groups--higher than for black women whose participation rate traditionally has been high; and 10 percentage points above the high rates of Chinese, Japanese, and Guamanian women.

Some 61 percent of the wives were in the labor force and 3 of every 4 of them had school-age and/or preschool-age children. Almost 85 percent of all children, however, were living with both parents.

About 1 in every 8 families had only the sole support of a woman without a husband. Of these, nearly 3 of every 5 included minor children. Four of every five Pilipino women maintaining a family alone worked in 1979, but 1 in 8 still earned less than a poverty level income. More than 65 percent of these women had children under 18 years old and almost a third had preschoolers.

Three-quarters of the women 25 years and older had completed high school, second only to the nearly 80 percent of Japanese women. As a whole, the median educational attainment of the Pilipino community at over 14 years is second only to that of the Koreans at more than 16 years--almost 2 and 4 years, respectively, above the national median.

Four of five Pilipino women were employed in private wage and salary jobs. A few, less than 10 percent each, were scattered in Federal and local government jobs. Almost half the women were fully employed, working 35 or more hours per week, year round. More than 1 in every 5 worked in health occupations, largely in health assessment and treating but also in diagnosing, and as technologists and technicians. Another one-fifth worked in service occupations, mainly in food services and

---

* The contemporary spelling for a person of Philippine ancestry is Pilipino. There is no F sound or letter in the language.

cleaning and building services jobs. Sizeable numbers were employed in management-related occupations; as financial records processing clerks; and as operators, fabricators, and laborers in factories.

Age Composition

The labor market activity of women varied substantially according to age. The participation rate of teen women increased somewhat over the Decade, as did that of young adult women. The dramatic growth in the female segment of the labor force, however, was attributed to women 25 to 54. Although this group included women engaged in childbearing and family building responsibilities, their labor force participation rate reached nearly 70 percent by 1984. Older women--those ages 55 to 64--registered little change in their labor force participation during the Decade. There was a decline in the labor market activity of women ages 65 and older. The labor force participation rates of women, by age group, are presented in Appendix table 10. Rates are shown for 1975 and 1984.

Young Women

Although teenage women ages 16 to 19 increased their participation in the labor force over the Decade, their numbers in the population and labor force declined. By 1984 just over half of teenage young women were either working or looking for work.

Minority young women, particularly black teens, suffered more severe joblessness than whites and ended the Decade for Women with higher unemployment rates than at the beginning. The unemployment rate of young women overall declined marginally.

Analysts have identified certain factors that limit employment opportunities for young black women, including the largely suburban locations of many of the new jobs versus the largely center-city residence of blacks; the trend toward industrial growth in the Southwest versus the lower propensity of blacks to move to that part of the country; and the lack of education and labor market skills of many young black women versus the higher skills levels of other segments of the labor force.

The lasting effects of young black women's lack of opportunities to obtain work experience in their teen years often are manifested in their being unemployed as young adults (ages 20 to 24). In 1984 the unemployment rate of young adult black females was nearly three times that of their white counterparts, worse than in 1975 when their jobless rate was twice that of young adult white women.

Unemployment Rates of Teenage and Young Adult Women

	1984 Percent	1975 Percent
Teens, ages 16-19		
All	18.0	19.7
White	15.2	17.4
Black*	38.5	38.3
Young adults, ages 20-24		
All	10.9	12.7
White	8.8	11.2
Black*	23.5	22.4

* Reported as "Negro and other" in 1975 and "Black and other" in 1984. Negroes were more than 90 percent of the group, according to the 1970 Census, and were a smaller proportion but still the overwhelming majority in 1984.

Women of Prime Working Age

The labor force participation of women ages 25 to 54 greatly increased slightly during the Decade. In 1975 more than half the women in this age group were workers, but by 1984 nearly 70 percent were either working or looking for work. Their unemployment rates at both points in time were lower than for all women.

The participation growth rate for white women was unusually rapid. Starting with a participation rate 6.6 percentage points lower than for black women in 1975, white women increased their participation rate to 68.0 percent by 1984, almost equaling black women's participation rate of 70.6 percent. The largest growth was among younger women ages 25 to 34, those at the early family building stage.

Older Women

The labor force participation rate of women ages 55 to 64 increased from 40.9 to 41.2 percent between 1975 and 1984. Despite the increase in job opportunities in the economy and the impressive labor market activity of women at younger ages, these women either chose to remain out of the labor force if they had not participated earlier, chose to retire, or withdrew prematurely for other reasons such as job dislocation or discouragement at not obtaining employment.

During the Decade the number of women ages 55 to 64 who were out of the labor force increased just over 12 percent, from 6.1 to 6.9 million,

but the proportion at home because they were keeping house declined from 81 percent in 1975 to 75 percent in 1984. On the other hand, the proportion out of the labor force for other reasons increased from 1.1 million or 19 percent, to 1.7 million or 25 percent. It is among this latter group that the discouraged and dislocated workers would be counted.

There was a 13 percent increase in the number of women ages 65 and older in the labor force between 1975 and 1984, from 1.0 to 1.2 million, even though their participation rate declined from 8.2 to 7.5 percent. Although higher in both years, the participation rates for black and other minority women also declined from 10.5 to 8.2 percent.

A special study on displaced workers, conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) and released in late 1984, found that the chance of reemployment for those workers whose jobs were abolished or whose plants shut down declined significantly with age, and women in general were somewhat less likely than men to be reemployed and more likely to have left the labor force. Some 36 percent of the displaced women workers ages 55 to 64 were not in the labor force at the time of the study and about the same proportion had found other employment. Since their median tenure on the job was over 10 years, most of these women probably would have worked longer, but more than 60 percent became displaced when their plants closed.

When workers become dislocated at ages 65 and over, most often they retire. Some two-thirds of the women of that age in the BLS study of displacement were found to be out of the labor force. Many might have preferred not to retire as early as they did. Nearly three-fourths were dislocated as the result of plant shut-downs or job abolishment. Their median tenure on the job was 9.8 years. Interestingly, 52 percent had worked in their jobs less than 10 years before displacement.

If these women had no other sources of income, such as from benefits related to work of a spouse, retirement income from another work experience of their own, or other income, they might have shared the experience of the 17 percent of women ages 65 and over who were in poverty in 1983. Of the 1.2 million women in that age bracket who did not find work the year before and were retired in 1983, 15 percent were poor.

Educational Attainment

The employment status of women in the United States is greatly affected by educational attainment. The more education women have received, the greater the likelihood they will be in paid employment. Among women 25 to 64 in 1984, 64 percent of those with only 4 years of high school and 78 percent of those with 4 years or more of college were in the labor force. In contrast, only 38 percent of women with 8 years of schooling or less were workers. (See Appendix table 11.)

Since 1975 the educational attainment of women has continued to rise and the average woman worker now is nearly as well educated as the average male worker. The median years of school completed by women workers age 16 and over in 1984 was 12.7, up from 12.5 years in 1975. Men in the labor force had completed a median of 12.8 years, an increase from 12.5 in 1975. Although a higher proportion of women than men workers ages 25 to 64 had completed at least high school (86 percent compared with 82 percent), 45 percent of the men had some college compared with 41 percent of the women.

Persons with college training continue to have a relative economic advantage over other workers. They are most likely to be in the labor force and least likely to be unemployed, and more of them continue to hold the highest paying professional and managerial jobs.

Historically, women have had lower college enrollments and completion rates than men, but these differences have continued to narrow in recent years. (See Appendix table 12). Reflecting these advances in educational attainment, women now represent 38 percent of all adult workers with 4 or more years of college, compared with 32 percent in 1970.

Women are making great strides in the content of their post secondary education at the bachelor's and master's degree levels, particularly in fields such as business and management where their representation historically has been low. In fields traditional to women, such as education, home economics, and the health professions, the proportion of degree recipients who are women remains virtually unchanged. At the doctoral level, the number of degrees awarded to women in nontraditional areas continues to increase. (See Appendix table 13.)

Younger women, in particular, are helping to close the educational gap between women and men. The median years of schooling of women workers ages 25 to 34 in 1984 was 13.0 years. More than 9 out of 10 of these young women had completed at least 4 years of high school and more than one-fourth were college graduates.

There has been a significant closing of the gap as well between the educational attainment of white and minority women workers. The median years of schooling of black women workers is 12.6. The difference of 0.2 years that now exists between black and white women workers is down from 1.8 years in 1962, an achievement that was made in less than a generation. The narrowing of this educational gap reflects two major occurrences: the continued decline in the number of black women workers with 8 years or less of school completed (only 8 percent today); and the increases in the proportion of black women who are completing high school and those continuing on to college.

Hispanic women in the labor force also have made gains in educational attainment. The median years of school they completed rose from 12.1 in 1975 to 12.3 by 1984. Although 22 percent of Hispanic women workers had completed 8 years or less of school, continued increases occurred in the

proportion of those who graduated from high school and those who completed college.

Women in Families

A large proportion of women who work are widows, divorcees, or single, or have husbands who earn less than $15,000 a year. Still, the married-couple family in which both husband and wife work is predominant. During the 1970's, as the crest of the baby boom reached working age and the rapidly expanding service-producing sector provided many new jobs, the proportion of married women working outside the home increased dramatically. Today, more than 60 percent of all husband-wife families have at least two persons employed.

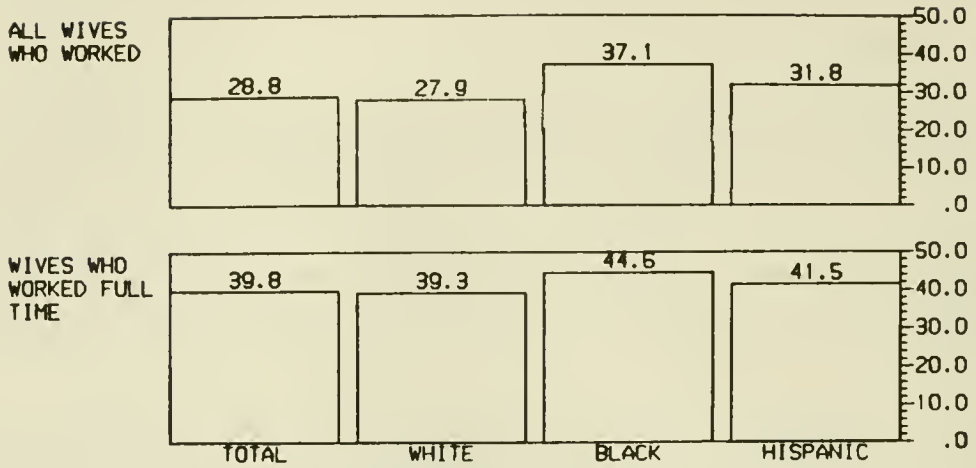
Working mothers--both single and married--have high rates of participation. In 1984 more than 3 out of 5 women maintaining families had children under age 18 in the home. Labor force participation rates show these single mothers have a strong commitment to the labor force. Seventy-seven percent were in the labor force when their youngest child was school age, as were 53 percent of those with preschoolers. The relatively high participation rates of married mothers, especially those with infants, attest, in part, to the acceptance in the United States of the employment of such mothers. The rates also reflect the growing trend of married women to delay having children until they have established themselves in their careers. Appendix table 14 provides data on the labor force participation of women who are single, married, separated, widowed, or divorced.

Multiple-Earner Families

Between 1975 and 1984 the number of families in the United States increased 10.4 percent, from 56.9 million to 62.9 million. Married-couple families grew only 4.7 percent during the Decade, from 47.9 to 50.1 million, but there was more rapid increase in multiple-earner families of all types, up 12 percent, especially among husband-wife families, up 17 percent. More than 60 percent of the growth in multi-earner families over the 10 years was among those in which both the husband and wife were in the labor force. By 1984 the majority of all families had spouses who were working or looking for work, and this type of family was nearly 90 percent of all multi-earner families. This phenomenon can be related directly to other data that show the rapid influx of wives into the labor force.

Working wives contribute substantially to the economic support of their families. In 1983 their share was 29 percent. When wives worked full time throughout the year, however, their contribution to family income was about 40 percent.

CONTRIBUTION OF WIVES EARNINGS TO FAMILY INCOME 1983
(PERCENT OF FAMILY INCOME)



SOURCE: BUREAU OF THE CENSUS,
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

New data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics beginning in 1980 confirmed general perceptions that married-couple families with two or more earners had the highest median earnings of the family types.

Median Weekly Earnings of Families by Type
Quarterly Averages

	Fourth Quarter 1984	Fourth Quarter 1980
Total families with earners	$513	$407
Married-couple families	568	445
One earner	379	308
Husband	426	352
Wife	204	157
Other family member	209	174
Two or more earners	698	551
Husband and wife only	666	524
Husband and other family member(s)	702	557
Wife and other family member(s)	447	355
Other family members only	422	388
Families maintained by women	290	225
Families maintained by men	450	380

Reflecting the historically high labor force participation rate of black women, two-earner married-couple families among blacks are more common than among white or Hispanic families. While their median family incomes were not as high as whites, the overwhelming majority of the black married-couple families have earned enough to remain above the poverty level. Appendix table 15 provides additional data on multi-earner families.

Women Who Maintain Families

Women who maintain their own families are considerably more likely to work or look for work today than in the past. But their historical pattern of marginal earnings and high unemployment persists, keeping the economic status of their families well below that of the majority of American families. A continuation of multiple problems hinder many women who support families from being more competitive in the market place. Prominent among these problems are lower average educational attainment and relatively higher proportions with children to raise.

In March 1984, 10.3 million families had as their principal support women who were divorced, separated, widowed, or never married. These families accounted for over 16 percent of all families in the United States, up 3 percentage points from 1975. Sixty-one percent of women maintaining families were labor force participants, compared with 54 percent in 1975. (See Appendix tables 16 and 17.)

Most employed women maintaining families worked at full-time jobs in 1984--82 percent. Those ages 25 to 54 were more likely to be working full time (85 percent) than either younger (72 percent) or older women (75 percent). Despite some movement into professional and managerial jobs, particularly by divorcees who are generally younger and have more education, most employed women maintaining families have tended to remain in the generally low paying or less skilled jobs. Like most employed women, the largest proportion of those maintaining families were in administrative support jobs, including clerical work.

As of 1984 about 69 percent of the women maintaining families were white, 29 percent were black, and fewer than 10 percent were of Hispanic origin. On average, the black women had more children under age 18 and less education than the white women. Black and Hispanic women maintaining families had lower median earnings, lower median ages, lower labor force participation rates, and higher unemployment rates than the white women. Also, their families were less likely than similar white families to have more than one earner.

The growth of female-headed families has been especially dramatic among blacks. In 1984, 44 percent of all black families were headed by women, compared with 23.2 percent of Hispanic families and 13 percent of white families.

Growth in Families Maintained by Women, 1970-1983
(Numbers in Thousands)

Year	White		Black		Hispanic*	
	Number	% of Total	Number	% of Total	Number	% of Total
1970	4,185	9.1	1,349	28.3	**	
1980	6,302	11.6	2,495	40.3	637	21.8
1983	6,783	12.6	2,808	42.4	800	31.0

* Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.
** No data available.

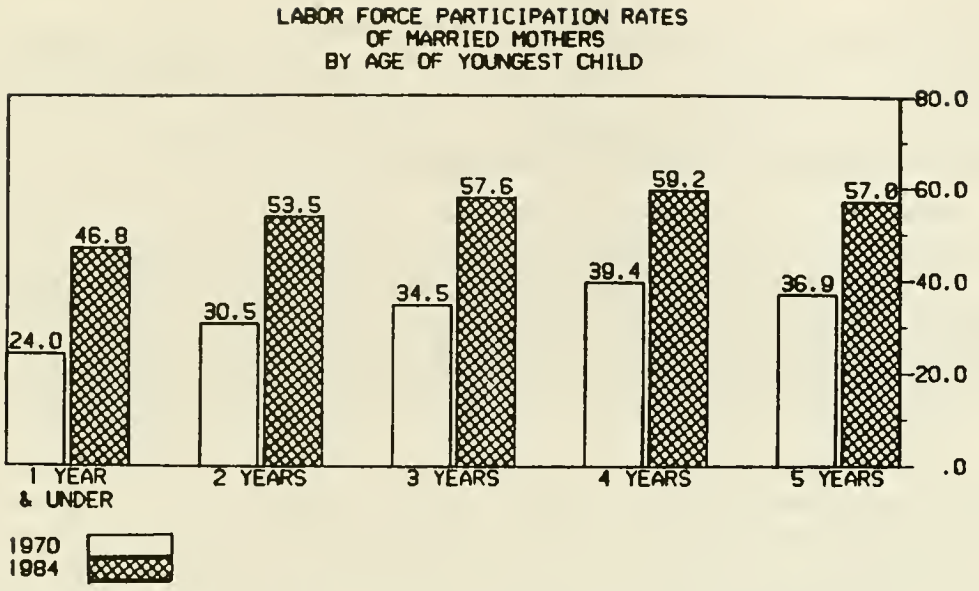
Working Mothers

Working mothers are a prominent segment of the U.S. work force. A record 19.5 million mothers, or 6 out of 10 with children under 18 years old, were in the labor force in 1984. Ten years earlier, not quite 5 out of 10 mothers worked outside the home.

Since 1975 the rise in the labor force participation rates for mothers has been phenomenal--about 13 percentage points. The increase was about the same for mothers of preschoolers as it was for mothers of school age children. Most of the gain was among married mothers, whose participation rate rose from 45 percent in 1975 to 59 percent in 1984. The rate for other mothers also advanced, but at a much slower pace.

One important aspect of this increase is the degree to which mothers today remain in the labor force after childbirth. This is clearly demonstrated in the comparison of married mothers' labor force participation rates.

Nearly half of the mothers with a child age 1 or younger were in the labor force in 1984. By the time the youngest child reached 3 years old, married mothers' participation rates approached 60 percent. These data clearly indicate that nursery school attendance or day care in some form is increasingly necessary. Most employed mothers--71 percent in 1984--work full time. Even when the youngest child is under 3, about 65 percent of the employed mothers are full-time workers.



SOURCE: BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.

About 56 percent of the 58 million U.S. children under age 18 had mothers in the labor force in 1984, compared with 44 percent in 1975. The vast majority of these children were under 14 years--ages for which all-day care, after-school care, or a combination of both is likely to be needed.

Almost half the children in two-parent families in 1984 had both an employed father and mother. As might be expected, children in single-parent families--primarily families maintained by women--were much less likely to have a working parent in the home. Overall, approximately 1 child in 7 lived in a home where there was no employed parent, and income was accordingly low (a median of $6,782 in 1983).

A record 6.2 million families with children were maintained by mothers in 1984, and they accounted for one-fifth of all families with children. In 1975 there were about half as many such families, and they constituted only one in seven of the families with children.

A higher percentage of black than white or Hispanic mothers were in the labor force in 1984. However, when labor force participation is examined by marital status, a different picture emerges. While black married mothers are much more likely to be in the labor force than their white counterparts, the opposite is true among divorced or separated mothers. Age, education, and the number of children are important factors underlying these differences. On average, black and Hispanic mothers without husbands are younger, have completed fewer years of

education, and have more children than their white counterparts, and thus are likely to have a harder time finding and holding jobs.

Childbearing and Labor Force Participation

The majority of American women are mothers by the end of their childbearing years. In 1980, for example, only about 6 percent of all ever-married women aged 40 to 44 remained childless, but there have been significant changes in the timing of births. In the 1960's there was a move from having children before age 25 to having them between 25 and 30. In the 1970's a significant group of women delayed childbearing until after age 30.

Delayed childbearing may have important consequences for women. Women who become mothers before age 21 tend to finish fewer years of school than those who have children later, and these young mothers show no evidence of catching up in educational attainment at later ages. Because education is so closely linked to labor force opportunities, lower attainment often translates into lower earnings in later life. Early childbearers also have larger families and a higher incidence of poverty than women who bear children later in life.

Fertility and birth expectations vary inversely with educational attainment, occupation and labor force status, and family income. The higher a women's educational attainment, the fewer births she has had or expects and the greater likelihood that she plans to have no children. Women with 5 or more years of college expect to have 1.7 children, on average, and 20 percent do not plan to have children at all. By contrast, women who have not completed high school expect to have 2.4 children, on average, and only 7 percent plan to have no children.

A similar relationship applies to family income and fertility. Women with the highest family income have the fewest children (0.9 on average), whereas women with very low family income have the highest fertility (1.5 children on average).

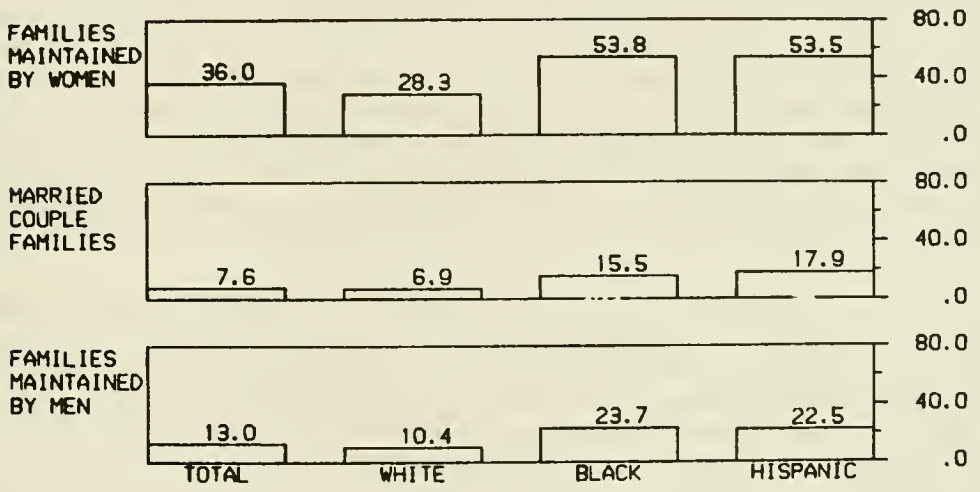
Women in Poverty

Poverty in families headed by women is a source of increasing public concern. Almost half of the poor people in the United States live in such families. The number of families maintained by women grew more than 84 percent between 1970 and 1984. The growth is attributed largely to more marriages ending in divorce and more women having children without marrying. The typical outcome of a marital breakup in a family with children is that the man becomes single while the woman becomes a single parent. The number of children living with a divorced mother more than

doubled between 1970 and 1982, while the number of children living with a never-married mother increased more than fourfold. In 1981, 1 in every 5 babies was born to an unmarried woman. In 1970 there were about 6.7 million children in one-parent families; by 1984 nearly 10.9 million children were in such families. Most of these children are being raised by their mothers.

Because average income among families maintained by women is low, proportionately more live below the poverty line than other families. In 1983 more than 1 of 3 families maintained by a woman was poor, compared with 1 of 13 other families. Although the percentages of black and Hispanic families maintained by women in poverty were much greater than for similar white families, all female-headed families greatly exceeded the proportions for other family groups.

FAMILIES LIVING IN POVERTY, 1983



SOURCE: BUREAU OF THE CENSUS, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

Today, families maintained by women have a poverty rate which is three times that of all families and five tim the rate for married-couple families. When race is taken into account, the poverty rate is even higher. More than half of the black families with female heads live in poverty, and 47 percent of all black children are poor.

Families maintained by women tend to be poorer than others because women face special obstacles in earning enough to support a family. Women generally earn less than men, so they frequently do not have sufficient earnings to support a family. Generally, their educational

attainment is low; therefore, these women often lack the skills for the higher paying jobs held by men, or consciously select the less demanding jobs. Due to their family responsibilities, many of these women select jobs requiring little or no overtime; they have minimal chances of advancement thereby reducing their current and future earnings potential.

Mothers raising children by themselves often receive no support from the absent father. Estimates are that only three-fifths of women with dependent children are awarded child support or have an agreement to receive it.

OTHER LABOR FORCE SEGMENTS

Women Business Owners

A significant social and economic change of the 1970's, along with the influx of women into the labor force, was the sharp movement of women into business ownership. During the late 1970's, female operated businesses increased more rapidly than male operated firms. In fact, from 1977 to 1980--the most recent period for which data are available--the number of nonfarm sole proprietorships operated by women increased 33 percent; similar male operated businesses rose 11 percent; and the total of all types increased 16 percent. Women's share of all nonfarm sole proprietorships rose from nearly 23 to 26 percent.

Changes in the number of self-employed women, who constitute a major portion of the sole proprietorships, suggest that the number of female operated sole proprietorships continued to grow from 1980 to 1983. The number of self-employed women rose from 2.1 million to 2.4 million, a 16 percent gain. The number of self-employed men increased only 5 percent over the 3-year period--from 4.9 million to 5.1 million.

According to the most recent data from the Bureau of the Census, women owned over 700,000 firms in 1977--representing 7 percent of all businesses in the United States. A special survey of women-owned businesses revealed that 94 percent were owned by white women, almost 4 percent by black women, and nearly 3 percent by women of Hispanic origin.

Despite the increased number of firms operated by women, there has not been a significant improvement in the size and type of operations. From 1977 to 1980 the percentage of business receipts from female operated nonfarm sole proprietorships increased from 7.8 percent of the yearly total to 8.9 percent. Average 1980 net income of these proprietorships was only $2,200 compared with $7,139 for similar male operated firms--virtually the same as in 1977, when it was $2,228 for women and $7,208 for men.

The major types of female operated businesses remain in the traditional areas of retail trade and services. Within these industry divisions, women are substantially involved in the operation of miscellaneous retail stores, personal services, and educational services. Since 1977, however, business women have made modest progress in entering nontraditional areas such as manufacturing, finance, insurance and real estate, and agricultural services.

Progress of women in new areas of entrepreneurship may be limited by differences in the educational fields of study and job skills of men and women. Relatively fewer women have educational backgrounds in the physical sciences, engineering, and business, which are important to many entrepreneurial endeavors today. Women also are underrepresented in managerial positions and highly technical and high-income sales jobs.

The concentration of women in traditional areas of business ownership is expected to decrease somewhat as more women enter new fields of education and different occupations that will assist their transition into high growth and more profitable business ventures.

U.S. policies developed to improve opportunities for women business owners are described in Part 2 of this report, "Policy Development." Also, several demonstration projects sponsored by the Women's Bureau to increase women's business development skills are described in Part 3, in the section on "Mechanisms of Change."

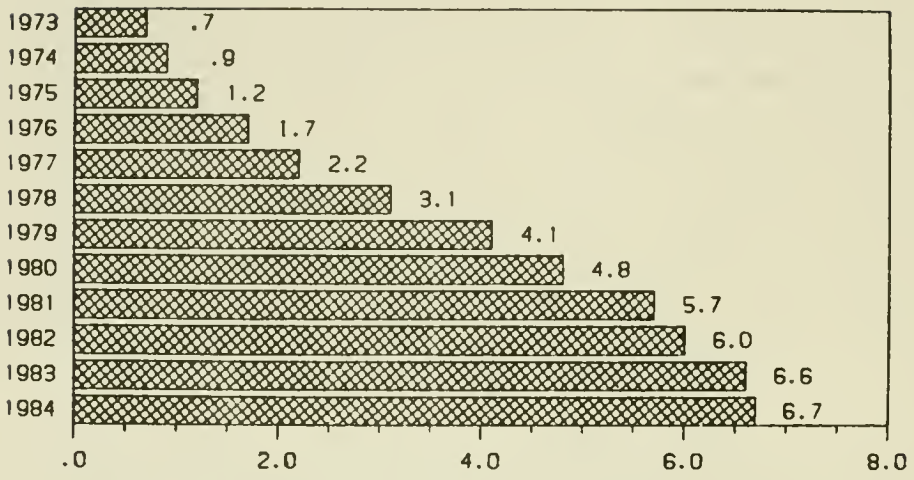
Women in Apprenticeship

Apprenticeship has long been regarded as one of the best routes to learn skilled crafts that lead to some of the highest possible wages for workers without advanced education. Many craft workers also are able to make transitions into independent entrepreneurship, another promising means of increasing women's earning capacities. Apprentices earn while they learn--a special kind of on-the-job training.

Many apprenticeship programs in the United States are under the sponsorship of unions or joint apprenticeship committees comprised of unions and employers. The Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training of the U.S. Department of Labor has recorded the percentage women apprentices are of all apprentices since 1973. The numbers of women have increased from less than 2,000 in 1973 to more than 15,000 at the end of 1984. The fastest rate of growth, however, was in the first half of the Decade.

At least some women apprentices were registered in every State of the union and in each of the 250 or more apprenticeable trades. The vast majority of women were registered in the approximately 50 trades in which virtually all apprentices (95 percent) are employed.

WOMEN AS A PERCENT OF TOTAL APPRENTICES



SOURCE: BUREAU OF APPRENTICESHIP AND TRAINING, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.

Women still predominate among the traditionally female skilled trades such as beauticians. As early as 1979, however, enrollees in the traditional female trades had been outnumbered by women apprentices in the building trades or other nontraditional jobs. The 1980 Census reorganized the classification of occupations, and craft workers now fall under "precision production, craft, and repair occupations" group. Some 1.1 million of these workers were women, or 8.1 percent of the 13.6 million workers so classified in 1980.

The 1980 Census separated out apprentices in certain selected crafts, as shown in the following example:

Selected Craft	No. of Women Apprentices	Total No. of Apprentices	Women as % of Total
Automobile mechanic	99	4,130	2.4
Carpenter	696	9,977	7.0
Electrician	1,028	18,801	5.5
Plumber, pipefitter, and steamfitter	360	12,360	2.9
Tool and die maker	317	7,880	4.0
Machinist	444	8,219	5.4
Sheet metal worker	133	737	18.0

There were 4,749 women supervisory mechanics and repairers, or 2.9 percent of the 157,000 journeyworkers; 13,204 women were supervisors in construction, or 1.7 percent of the total of 790,832. There was not one listed occupation in the precision production series where women did not appear.

Many of the skilled trades require skills, knowledge and physical abilities that women have not emphasized in their life preparation. Therefore, some women's organizations have developed preapprenticeship training courses to help women bring their basic skills up to required entrance levels as explained in the section on "Program Components," in Part 4 of this report.

Women Living on Farms

Women living on farms and working in agriculture are just as likely to be unpaid family workers as to be self-employed. Of those employed in agriculture in 1983, only 19 percent were wage and salary workers while 40 percent were unpaid family workers. The labor force participation rate of farm women, although lower than that of nonfarm women at 52 percent in 1983, increased from 39 percent in 1975 to more than 46 percent by 1983. The unemployment rate among the female farm population in 1983 was 4.4 percent, compared with 9.7 percent for nonfarm women.

Farm women were more often employed in nonagricultural jobs (68 percent) while farm men more often had agricultural jobs (67 percent). This large proportion of women engaged in nonagricultural work reflects, at least in part, the importance of supplemental nonfarm income to farm families. Farm women are more likely to be employed in service industries.

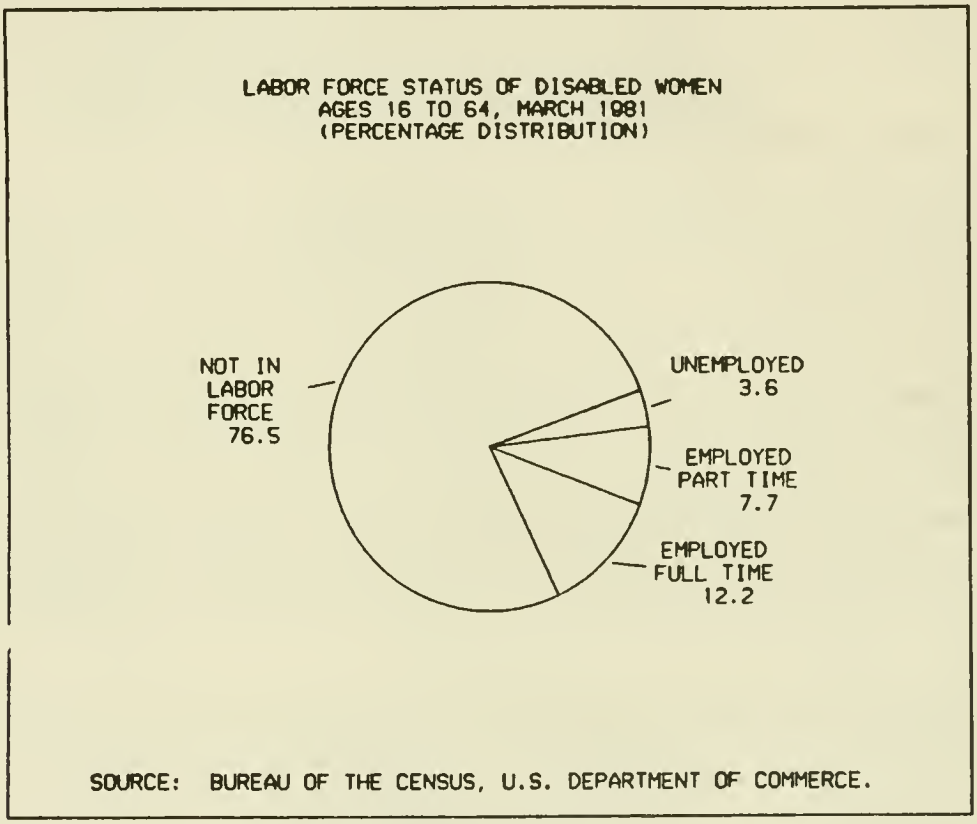
The median income of farm families continues to be substantially lower than that for nonfarm families. In 1982 the median income of farm and nonfarm families was $18,756 and $23,585, respectively. Farm families are more likely to be in poverty than are nonfarm families. About one-fifth (19 percent) of farm families but 12 percent of nonfarm families had incomes below the poverty level in 1982. The proportion of farm families maintained by women (5 percent) in March 1983 was about one-third of that of nonfarm families (15.7 percent).

Disabled Women

When disabled women are able to surmount barriers to employment, they tend to obtain jobs that pay well. In fact, when they persist in their efforts to secure jobs they often are successful in obtaining wages comparable to those of their nondisabled peers. In 1981 more than 23

percent of disabled women of working age (16 to 64) were in the labor force--a decrease from 26 percent in 1970.

Women who were disabled represented more than 8 percent of all working age women in the United States in 1981, which is slightly more than 1 woman in every 12 in the working age population. While only 16 percent of disabled women have some college education, more than one-third of those who do work. By contrast, only 1 in every 8 disabled women with less than 8 years of schooling has a job.



As a group, disabled women generally are poor. Two out of three had an income of less than $4,000 in 1980. That is far less than the $7,000 average for women without disabilities. Only 3 percent of the disabled women had a 1980 income of $15,000 or more.

Slightly less than half of the working age women with disabilities are married compared with over 60 percent of similar nondisabled women. They are more likely to be divorced or separated and less apt to have never married. However, they are more than four times as likely as nondisabled women and disabled men to be widowed (15 percent).

Women in Labor Organizations

During the first half of the Decade, continuous growth was recorded in the number of women on membership rolls of unions and employee associations, against a downward trend in total organized labor. Although their growth was stronger in unions than among professional associations, reflecting continuing increases in employment in the service industries and in State and local governments, the rate at which women joined labor organizations was outpaced by the rate at which they entered the labor force.

The number of women in unions and professional associations peaked in 1980 with 6.1 million members, or 30 percent of total membership according to BLS data. Their number declined to 5.8 million in 1984. Because of the sharp total decline in membership, women comprised 33.6 percent of the total at the end of the Decade, but represented only 13.8 percent of all women workers.

Women in Unions and Professional Associations
(Numbers in Thousands)

	1984	1980	1977
Total membership	17,340	20,095	19,335
Women members	5,829	6,056	5,329
Women as percent of total	33.6	30.1	27.6

Women in labor organizations were less than representative of the proportion of employed women in the labor force and were heavily weighted toward minorities. About a fifth (18 percent) of the women members were black and 5.9 percent were of Hispanic origin. The 1.1 million black women who were union or professional organization members comprised almost a fourth (22 percent) of all black women workers and more than two-fifths of all organized black workers. Similarly, the 343,000 Hispanic women in labor organizations comprised 16 percent of all Hispanic women workers but 32 percent of all organized Hispanic workers. The 4.6 million white women in labor groups comprised only 13 percent of all white women who were employed and about a third of organized white workers.

Women have continued to benefit from membership in labor organizations, especially in the matter of earnings. Union women's earnings exceeded nonunion women's earnings by an average of 30 percent in 1984. Still, among organized labor the gap between women's and men's earnings did not close. The usual median weekly earnings of women in labor organizations at $326 were 73 percent of union men's, while nonunion women's earnings at $251 were only 69 percent of those of nonunion men.

Part II. Policy Development

Part 2. POLICY DEVELOPMENT

OVERVIEW

During the United Nations Decade for Women, policymakers in the United States took many steps toward the goal of making equal employment opportunity policy a reality in practice. The building blocks of a strong policy were already in place at the beginning of the Decade. Yet many problems remained to be addressed and many barriers to be overcome, particularly for working mothers.

Two major challenges were to strengthen and coordinate enforcement of legislation and to clarify the application of the law to specific situations. Amendments and guidelines clarified policy in such areas as: women's access to better jobs in construction, apprenticeship, and certain occupations in the armed services; pensions and social security for workers and their spouses; discrimination against pregnant workers; sexual harassment; pay equity; child care for working parents; training and vocational education. Federal policy was developed to encourage women business owners. Affirmative action policy was being reassessed at the end of the Decade.

Federal agencies systematically reviewed the entire United States Code and regulations to identify any instances of sex discrimination in the law, and many States did the same.

Whenever specific issues received attention, policymakers examined the roles of both the Federal and State governments in addressing economic problems. Laws were revised to give States greater responsibility in planning and administering employment-related programs, and greater cooperation between government and the private sector was fostered.

This section reviews achievements in the policy area during the Decade and indicates where steps are being taken toward further policy development.

BASES FOR EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY

United States policy on equal employment opportunity is made up of a number of interrelated laws and executive actions formulated at different times. Laws against sex discrimination in employment and training are part of a whole fabric of laws to ensure fair treatment regardless of race, color, religion, national origin, sex, age, and physical or mental handicap. Employment practices must be related to the worker's ability to perform the job, and impediments or barriers are to be removed insofar

as possible. Primary among the laws already in place at the beginning of the U.N. Decade for Women were the following:

- the Equal Pay Act of 1963, which prohibits employers from paying employees of one sex less than employees of the other sex for substantially equal work in the same establishment;

- the much broader title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prohibits discrimination in all terms and conditions of employment based on sex, race, color, religion, or national origin (hiring, discharge, promotion, training, compensation and benefits are all within the reach of this act);

- Executive Order 11246, as amended, which places additional obligations on Federal contractors to take affirmative steps to assure that there be no discrimination in employment based on sex, race, color, religion, or national origin;

- the Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967, which prohibits age discrimination against applicants or workers between the ages of 40 and 65 (later amended to age 70);

- Section 503 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, which requires that Federal contractors provide equal job opportunity and affirmative action for qualified handicapped persons; other sections in title V of the act prohibit discrimination on the basis of handicap in Federal employment and in programs or activities receiving Federal funds;

- Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, which prohibits sex discrimination in any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance, and the Women's Educational Equity Act of 1974, which provides grants for projects such as the development of nonsexist curriculums and new techniques of guidance and counseling to broaden women's career choices.

Many States enacted counterparts to these Federal laws. Agreements were developed to coordinate efforts both among the Federal agencies enforcing the laws and between Federal agencies and the States.

While enactment of the many nondiscrimination laws represented a significant commitment to equal opportunity, the application of these laws to specific areas of policy was far from clear at the outset of the U.N. Decade for Women. The world and national conferences and "plans of action" provided a supportive climate during the period when U.S. policymakers were testing and fine-tuning these basic laws.

ACCESS TO BETTER JOBS

Access to more skilled and to higher paying jobs has consistently been a major objective of women in the labor force. All through the Decade the media recounted "firsts" for women in work as diverse as mining coal, conducting experiments in space as an astronaut, managing a bank, or serving as a justice on the U.S. Supreme Court. While numbers of women moved into better jobs (see "Occupational Trends" in Part 1), many women still met resistance, particularly in attempting to enter high-paying, blue-collar jobs.

Skilled Trades

In 1978 the Department of Labor issued regulations requiring affirmative action for women in construction and in apprenticeship. While women's participation in the precision production, craft, and repair occupations is still not high, the gain over the Decade of 3 percentage points, to 8.5 percent by 1984, has been significant.

In 1985 the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), which enforces the Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) as well as the Equal Pay Act and title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, proposed modifying regulations which have permitted age limits in apprenticeship programs. Some programs bar entrance to persons more than 26 years of age. While most young men who enter apprenticeship do so shortly after completing high school, some women become serious about learning a skilled trade in their late twenties or early thirties, after early years spent predominantly on family responsibilities. Removal of age restrictions in apprenticeship would ease their access to better jobs.

Voluntary Affirmative Action

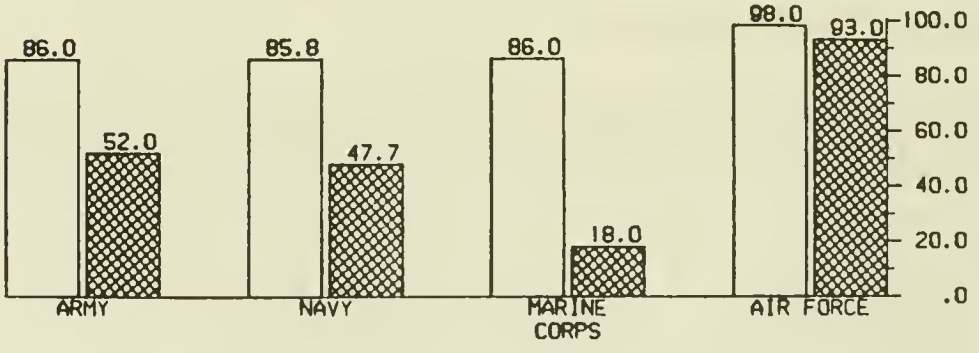
Voluntary affirmative action programs have been established by some employers and in some collective bargaining agreements to offset deeply entrenched employment patterns that have had an adverse impact on women and minorities. In 1979 the EEOC issued guidelines on voluntary affirmative action plans. Appropriate voluntary plans include an objective self-analysis of the company's practices, identification of problems, and reasonable measures to offset adverse impact of past practices. In recent years courts and policymakers have been reexamining and challenging the use of numerical goals and timetables to increase the numbers of minorities and women in jobs to which they had little access. Debate on affirmative action is expected to continue in Congress, in advisory bodies, and through litigation in the effort to find the most equitable means of overcoming systemic patterns of discrimination.

Women in the Armed Forces

Since the early 1970's both the number of women in the Armed Forces and the variety of military occupational specialties to which they have been assigned have increased markedly. From the mid-1940's to the early 1970's, women constituted less than 2 percent of the Nation's military strength. In 1972 the Department of Defense, spurred partly by concern that the end of the military draft in the early 1970's might result in shortages of male recruits, decided to increase the use of women in the Armed Forces. By June 1975 women constituted about 4.6 percent of the total active military force, and by December 1984 they constituted 9.5 percent.

In the 1960's, only the traditional skills (primarily in clerical and medical fields) were open to women in the military. Today, only those positions classified as combat or closely related to combat remain closed. Between 1971 and early 1985 the proportion of enlisted military skills open to women rose from 39 percent to 86 percent in the Army; from 24 to nearly 86 percent in the Navy; from 57 to 86 percent in the Marine Corps; and from 51 to 98 percent in the Air Force. As of December 1984, 52 percent of positions in the Army, about 48 percent of those in the Navy, 18 percent of those in the Marine Corps, and 93 percent of positions in the Air Force were open to women.

OFFICER AND ENLISTED CAREER OPPORTUNITIES
PERCENT OF SKILLS AND POSITIONS OPEN TO WOMEN
DECEMBER 1984



SOURCE: U.S. DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE.

(The Women's Bureau is conducting research to examine the transferability of military occupational skills to women's post-service employment. A brief description of the project is included in the section on "Research Activities of the Women's Bureau.")

On August 27, 1984, the Secretary of Defense announced establishment of a Task Force on Equity for Women to evaluate the effects of defense policies, programs, and practices on opportunities for women and to recommend changes where appropriate.

Women Business Owners

Increasingly in the past Decade women have begun to establish and manage their own businesses. Congressional hearings on the difficulties faced by women entrepreneurs led to the creation of an Interagency Task Force on Women Business Owners in 1977 to focus specifically on the problems and to make recommendations for action by the Federal Government. The Task Force's report, issued in June 1978, contained recommendations in the areas of legislation, regulations, capital formation, credit, and Federal loans and grants.

To implement these recommendations an Interagency Committee on Women's Business Enterprise was formed, comprised of high-level representatives from Government agencies. The Committee's mission was to work with agencies to expand Federal procurement opportunities for women business owners, increase loan opportunities, improve data collection efforts, and institute better outreach and management assistance programs. The Committee continues its work on behalf of women business owners.

Executive Order 12138, issued in May 1979, created a National Women's Business Enterprise Policy and outlined arrangements for the development, coordination, and implementation of a national program in this area. The executive order mandated, among other things, all Federal departments and agencies to take affirmative action in support of women's business enterprise in appropriate programs and activities, particularly in the areas of technical and management assistance; training, counseling, and information dissemination; and procurement. In 1980 an Office of Women's Business Enterprise was established within the Small Business Administration (SBA) to oversee the implementation of Executive Order 12138, in cooperation with the Committee, and to administer the national program. The Committee developed language for a subcontracting clause to be used in all prime contracts to encourage utilization of women business firms in subcontracting activities. In addition, each Federal agency involved in major procurement activity was directed to establish a women-owned business program under its Office of Small and Disadvantaged Business Utilization. In this program the office develops agency procedures to ensure women-owned business participation in acquisition activities, establishes and monitors women-owned business goals, and identifies

program offices whose requirements for services are offered by these types of firms.

The SBA is the Federal agency with primary responsibility for providing assistance to women business owners. That agency provides assistance through programs that target direct loan funds to women, as well as through those which provide management and technical assistance, such as programs established by the Small Business Development Center Improvement Act of 1984. The technical assistance programs offer short-term training, conferences, counseling, and academic training on starting and running a business. SBA also produces and disseminates publications to inform women business owners of the resources available to them.

In a new initiative for women business owners, the President directed the SBA in June 1983 to sponsor a series of conferences across the United States to assist women to "compete equitably in the total business environment." These national conferences provided business skills training for women, as well as promoted private sector initiatives for access to corporate resources for women business owners. Media outreach was included in the conferences to emphasize the economic contributions that can be generated by successful women-owned businesses.

To ensure the success of the National Initiative Program, strong private support had to be obtained. To gain this support the President established, through Executive Order 12426, the President's Advisory Committee on Women's Business Ownership. The Committee, composed of 15 members, was charged with fostering private sector support (financial, educational, and procurement) for women entrepreneurs, and with reviewing the status of women-owned businesses in order to provide advice to the President and to the Administrator of the Small Business Administration.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING FOR BETTER JOBS

Education and training have long been seen as pathways to better jobs for women. During the U.N. Decade for Women particular effort has been made to eliminate narrow stereotypical thinking about the occupations women could enter and the education and skills they would need. This effort to expand options and opportunities for women has pervaded job training programs, vocational education, higher education, and the academies of the military services.

Job Training

At the beginning of the Decade, employment and training activities and services were conducted primarily at the State and local level under the terms of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA). Under CETA, local units of government called prime sponsors were granted funds to conduct programs formerly administered by the Federal Government, or to design new programs tailored to meet their specific local needs.

Although CETA was a step toward decentralization of employment and training programs, monitoring, oversight, and some program responsibilities still rested with the Federal Government.

CETA was replaced in 1982 with the enactment of the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA). The new legislation, which became fully effective October 1, 1983, differed from CETA in that the role and responsibilities of the States in job training programs were greatly increased. The States were made the primary recipients of funds and were given the principal responsibility for program direction, monitoring, and administrative functions previously carried out by the Federal Government. Recognizing the need for private sector input, resources, and expertise in order for training programs to lead to gainful, unsubsidized employment, the private sector was given equal authority with its public partners in local program planning, policy guidance, amd oversight. Local service delivery areas (SDA's) and private industry councils (PIC's) thus share responsibility for the outcomes of participants in their programs.

JTPA, like its predecessor, carries a mandate to help prepare economically disadvantaged individuals and those with serious barriers to employment to be productive members of the labor force. The act sets two primary performance goals for adult training programs: reduced welfare dependency and increased employment and earnings. Given these goals, it is clear that women were intended to be among the primary beneficiaries of the provisions of JTPA. In addition, general program requirements stipulate that programs be developed that overcome sex stereotyping in occupations traditional for the other sex. JTPA also prohibits discrimination based on race, color, religion, and sex, among other factors. It provides heavy emphasis on training for youth.

The act stipulates that at least 90 percent of participants in each SDA must be individuals who are economically disadvantaged (that is, living at or below the poverty level). In addition, welfare recipients are to be served equitably and in relation to their proportion of economically disadvantaged persons. A majority of individuals living at or below the poverty level are women; women also are a majority of welfare recipients, particularly AFDC (Aid to Families with Dependent Children) recipients. JTPA, therefore, targets women as beneficiaries of their training programs in order to meet its mandates.

Up to 10 percent of local program participants may be persons who are not economically disadvantaged but face serious barriers to employment, such as teenage parents and displaced homemakers. JTPA also authorizes the provision of supportive services, particularly child care, health care, and transportation, to individuals who need it to participate in the program, such as single heads of households with dependent children.

Under JTPA, women's participation has increased in the policymaking side of the equation as well. For example, each Governor must ensure that membership in the State Job Training Coordinating Council (SJTCC)

"reasonably represents the population of the State." Also, the council must include representatives of the general public and the eligible population. Private industry councils (PIC's) must have a majority representation of business members and include, among others, representatives from community-based organizations (CBO's). Women business owners as well as CBO's that serve women have great opportunities to represent women's employment and training interests.

Vocational Education

Early in the Decade--in 1976--new language appeared in legislation authorizing Federal grants for State vocational education programs. Modest funding provided for a Sex Equity Coordinator for each State, programs to overcome sex stereotyping and sex discrimination in vocational education, training of counselors in the changing work patterns of women, and vocational education for displaced homemakers (longtime homemakers who because of widowhood or divorce suddenly need to prepare themselves to enter or reenter paid employment). Reauthorized in 1984 as the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act, substantial emphasis was added to programs for women and, for the first time, an industry-education partnership for training in high technology occupations was established.

The law provides assistance to States to expand and improve existing vocational education programs and to develop quality programs to meet the needs of the country's current and future work force. The language of the act ensures access to programs by individuals who have been underserved in the past, such as handicapped and disadvantaged individuals, single parents and homemakers, persons with limited English proficiency, women and men entering nontraditional occupations, and incarcerated individuals.

Most of the funds are provided through the basic vocational education grant given to each State. Twelve percent of the total basic State grant is awarded for two new "special needs" programs that will assist women: 8.5 percent for programs for single parents and homemakers, and 3.5 percent for activities designed to eliminate sex bias or stereotyping, especially for young women ages 14 to 25. In addition, the role of the State sex-equity coordinator has been strengthened considerably, since this person has responsibility for administering both of these new programs.

Other activities authorized by the legislation include consumer and homemaker education grants, support services to be provided by community-based organizations, career guidance and counseling programs, and training in high technology occupations. Bilingual vocational training is included among special activities that may receive discretionary funds. Such activities can help new populations of immigrant women become productive members of their communities.

The Academies of the Armed Services

Legislation in 1975 permitting women to be appointed to the Army, Navy, and Air Force Academies opened still other career paths to women. In 1985 a female cadet in the U.S. Naval Academy led her graduating class.

Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972

The strong impact of title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 was felt throughout the Decade. Title IX prohibits sex discrimination in any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance. The admission of women on an equal basis to graduate schools in law, medicine, and business administration has been followed by marked increases in the numbers of women earning advanced degrees (see "Educational Attainment" in Part 1). Greater access for women to sports scholarships has yielded some Olympic champions and women entering professional sports. Research grants, another necessity for advancement in some professions, became more accessible to women.

A 1984 Supreme Court decision narrowed the application of title IX to the particular program or activity actually receiving the Federal dollars rather than to the whole education institution whose program was funded. Members of Congress have introduced bills to restore full effectiveness of title IX.

While title IX prohibits discrimination, the Women's Educational Equity Act provides grant money to fund development of projects and materials that offer alternatives to sex-stereotypical courses, counseling programs, and materials.

PAY EQUITY

"Pay equity"; "equal pay for jobs of comparable worth (or value)"; "sex-based wage discrimination (or race-based wage discrimination)"; "equal pay for work requiring equal skill, effort, and responsibility"--all are expressions of a rising concern about the issue of fairness in wage-setting practices. Research, litigation, and initiatives by employers, State legislatures, and trade unions are expected to continue during the next decade since the complexity of the issue precludes easy or simple solutions.

Research on the reasons for long-standing differences in the median pay between women and men has identified some nondiscriminatory causes but has left unexplained a residual earnings gap attributed by some to discrimination (see "Earnings Differentials" in Part 1). There is agreement that women are clustered in predominantly low-paying occupations and that the more an occupation is dominated by women, the less it pays. There also is agreement that one approach to achieving better pay for

women is for more women to learn new skills and apply for a wider range of occupations. Economists differ, however, about whether the skills in occupations now held predominantly by women are undervalued and underpaid.

Litigation

As noted earlier, at the beginning of the Decade the Equal Pay Act of 1963 and title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 were already in place. Both prohibit discrimination in compensation; neither incorporates language about "comparable worth." The Equal Pay Act has survived many challenges in the courts, and the U.S. Supreme Court has ruled that the act can apply to jobs that are "substantially equal," not necessarily identical. The Equal Pay Act specifically permits different pay for equal work if the difference is based on seniority, merit, quantity or quality of production, or any factor other than sex. These factors are sometimes called the "four affirmative defenses."

Title VII permits the same four affirmative defenses but does not limit a finding of wage discrimination under title VII to jobs that are equal. In County of Washington v. Gunther, a landmark case decided by the U.S. Supreme Court in 1981, female prison guards alleged intentional sex discrimination because their pay was only 70 percent of the pay of male prison guards. This pay difference remained even after the county had conducted a job evaluation which determined that the positions of the female guards should be valued at 95 percent of the value of the positions of the male guards. Because the jobs were not equal the Equal Pay Act did not provide a means of ending the wage differentiation. However, the Supreme Court ruled that the inequality of the jobs did not prevent relief under title VII. The decision noted that the Court had not itself determined the value of the different jobs, and courts generally have been reluctant to do so. The decision confined itself to the case at hand and did not attempt to set criteria that would apply to future cases on sex-based wage discrimination brought under title VII.

More recently a Federal district court found discrimination in a case where a public employees union brought evidence that the State of Washington had not implemented the results of its series of studies that showed a 20 percent pay disparity between predominantly male and predominantly female jobs requiring an equivalent composite of skill, effort, and responsibility. Further evidence established occupational segregation on the basis of sex (advertisements for "male" and "female" positions and disparities in salaries between predominantly male and female entry level jobs which require the same qualifications). This and the admission by State officers that wages paid to employees in predominantly female jobs were discriminatory led the judge to a determination of "direct, overt and institutionalized discrimination" in violation of title VII. The case has been appealed by the State.

A variety of cases alleging wage discrimination based on sex have been brought in the last 10 years under title VII. In many cases the courts found discrimination and in many they did not. The outcome of litigation when the jobs are quite different is not yet clear.

Initiatives by State Legislatures

Most States already have equal pay laws or fair employment laws comparable to the Equal Pay Act or title VII or both. According to a recent survey conducted by the Council of State Governments, many States are giving serious attention to the issue of pay equity. Legislative or administrative action to study the salary classifications of State employees is the action most frequently taken. Four States have moved beyond study, taking steps to equalize pay levels between jobs held predominantly by women and comparable jobs held predominantly by men. By appropriating money to increase salary rates in low-paid, female-dominated jobs, they hope that gradual, good-faith corrective measures taken now will make costly litigation unnecessary later. Other States have turned down such measures but are monitoring the progress of pay equity studies elsewhere.

Initiatives by Trade Unions

A number of unions have taken leadership roles on pay equity. Although unions differ on the emphasis that should be placed on the issue, some see it as a basis for expanding membership, particularly in occupations dominated by women.

Among the strategies used by unions are litigation, supporting State legislation directed at the salaries of public employees, and educating their members through publications and meetings. Through collective bargaining unions have pressed for a commitment to equal pay for work of comparable value; more specifically, for employer/union studies of job classifications and wage rates to detect discrimination, "upgrading 'women's jobs,'" and negotiating "equity increases." A public employees strike against a city government and a strike by private university employees to raise wages alleged to be undervalued in clerical and technical jobs won pay increases in the new contracts for predominantly "women's jobs." Grievance and arbitration procedures also have been used to correct wage inequities.

Initiatives by Employers

Today, employers generally support the concept of equal pay for equal work (as defined in the Equal Pay Act) and few would quarrel with the premise that wages should be based on work performed, not on the sex of the worker. Nevertheless, employers raise serious concerns about proposals for equal pay for jobs of "comparable worth." Among other

things, they express the view that judges and courts do not have sufficient technical expertise to determine the worth of a job and that government intervention in salary determination would prove disruptive and unworkable, and would lead to rising business costs and inflation. They also fear that this rise in costs would hurt U.S. competitiveness in world markets.

Public employers and large companies have used job evaluation plans and job classification systems for decades to bring some kind of order and rationale into the wage-setting process. However, employers stress the need to take supply and demand into account in any wage-setting system. Several employers nevertheless have taken steps to examine their own job evaluation and classification systems as a part of assessing the fairness of their own employment practices. For example, as new technology rapidly changed the content of jobs and the qualifications needed to fill them, one major company invited unions to take part in the committees that identified job factors and estimated the importance of those factors, laying the groundwork for wage determinations. A number of management consulting firms have specialized in providing legal and technical advice to companies facing the complexities of reassessing their systems of wage determination.

RETIREMENT INCOME PROGRAMS

Retirement income, important to all people, is critical to women because of their longevity. The federally administered Social Security program, which covers most workers, provides monthly benefits to retired workers and their dependents. While employers are not required to offer additional private pensions, those who do so have been required since 1974 to meet certain minimum standards.

Private Pension Plans

It has been difficult for women, particularly those with family responsibilities, to meet the years-of-service requirements to earn a private pension. The Retirement Equity Act of 1984 (REA) removes many difficulties that workers--particularly women--have faced in earning their own pensions and in receiving retirement income following divorce or the death of their spouse.

The special work patterns of women are taken into consideration by REA. Many women enter the work force after high school or college, work a few years, marry, leave to have children, and then reenter employment when the children enter or finish school. Before enactment of REA, private plans could set 25 as the minimum age for participation. Women, whose labor force participation rate is nearly 70 percent between the ages of 18 and 25, frequently lost any pension rights they might have earned in their early work years and had to start over when they resumed paid employment after childbearing.

Under REA, a plan cannot exclude a worker from coverage after she or he reaches age 21 and has 1 year of service. In addition, years of service are to be credited from age 18 after a worker becomes a member of a pension plan. Further, liberalized "break-in-service" rules help families plan more effectively to retain pension rights when either parent leaves the work force for a period of time to care for infant children. Plans must permit participants to leave and return to a job without sacrificing pension credits built up unless the breaks in service exceed 5 consecutive years or the amount of time the employee worked at the job before leaving, whichever is greater. Under a special rule applying to maternity or paternity leave (including leave for adoption of a child), an employee may be credited with up to 501 hours of service, solely for determining whether a break in service has occurred.

In addition to making it easier for women to earn their own pension, REA contains provisions that protect the retirement income of women as wives, widows, and former spouses. All married participants with vested benefits (benefits to which the worker has a legal right, usually earned after 10 years of service) must automatically be provided with an annuity which provides for a survivor. A participant may waive survivor benefits, but only with the written consent of her or his spouse. Enactment of this provision marks a shift from the premise that a pension belonged solely to the paid worker, who had the power to exclude her/his spouse from survivor benefits even without any kind of notice. REA also clarified the fact that plan administrators can honor a court order assigning benefits from the plan participant to pay for child support or alimony.

(Provisions somewhat comparable to those affecting private plans under REA have been enacted in separate legislation affecting pensions of certain Federal employees. In the late 1970's and early 1980's Congress passed legislation allowing State courts to consider Federal civil service and military retirement benefits as marital property subject to division in divorce settlements. Survivor benefits for civil service and foreign service spouses were made mandatory unless waived in writing by both spouses.)

While REA unquestionably will make it easier for workers to earn pensions, significant problems remain. In particular, as technological change makes many jobs, in fact whole companies, obsolete, long-term careers with a single employer cannot be expected. More portability of pension credit from one job to another, and reducing to 5 years the service required to earn "vested benefits" are policy goals still sought by several women's organizations.

Sex-Based Actuarial Tables

Still another pension issue important to women was settled by the U.S. Supreme Court rather than by legislation. It had been customary for some companies to use sex-differentiated actuarial tables to determine the payment and benefit schedules of employment-related annuities. Since

women as a group live longer than men, some plans required women to make larger monthly payments into a plan to receive the same fixed monthly benefit as men in comparable situations. Conversely, if the contributions were the same, women were paid a smaller monthly benefit during retirement.

In a landmark case in 1978 the Court ruled that requiring women to make higher contributions than similarly situated men are required to do violates title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The Court reasoned that although women as a class live longer than men and therefore draw annuity benefits for longer periods, characteristics of a class may or may not be those of an individual and that title VII requires that the individual's characteristics must govern compensation and benefits. Subsequent cases in 1983 and 1984 reinforced the same principle which will govern future practices for employment-related annuities. An attempt to enact legislation that would bar the use of sex-based rates for annuities and other forms of insurance purchased individually (not as an employment benefit) did not succeed in Congress.

Social Security

Policies determining retirement income under social security have been under great scrutiny and debate throughout the Decade. Because social security is totally portable and because it has always automatically provided benefits for dependents and surviving spouses the program has been favorable to women. Changes in the earning patterns of families and the increase of divorce, however, have affected the equity of social security benefits.

A provision that a divorced spouse had to have been married to an insured worker for 20 years or longer was reduced to 10 years, but there is no prorated benefit for a former spouse who was married to an insured worker for less than 10 years. Amendments in 1983 made changes liberalizing benefits for disabled widow(er)s, certain divorced spouses, and surviving divorced spouses.

A central issue is whether the system of dependents' benefits, designed decades ago, adequately serves a society in which more than half of the women of ages 16 and over work for pay outside the home. In a marriage in which both partners work, social security does not provide commensurately for paid work by both spouses. For example, the law entitles a wife (or husband) to a "spouse benefit" equal to 50 percent of the husband's (or wife's) benefit, but a working wife who would be entitled to both a "spouse" and a worker benefit receives only the greater of the two. The result is that one-earner couples generally receive greater benefits than two-earner couples with the same total earned income.

A proposal for "earnings sharing" would credit 50 percent of the combined annual earnings of a married couple to each spouse's earnings

record. While this proposal would benefit most two-earner couples, it would reduce the income of a one-earner couple, which now gets the insured worker's benefit plus 50 percent more for the dependent. No quick resolution of the issues can be expected, but continued exploration and proposals from legislators and private groups is assured.

POLICY SUPPORT FOR DAY CARE SERVICES

The need for day care for the children of working parents has greatly increased over the past 20 years and is expected to continue into the 1990's. More married women are entering the work force than ever before and more are remaining at work during their childrearing years. For many single parents with small children, child care services enabling the parent to work are a necessity. In addition, care services for elderly or disabled persons frequently are needed while other family members work.

Federal policymakers have responded to the increased need for child and dependent care services primarily through provisions in the Federal tax law which provide tax credits to workers, tax incentives for employers to establish day care programs, and tax deductions for those who make charitable contributions to nonprofit day care facilities. Direct support for day care services is provided also through transfer payments to poor persons to enable them to participate in training programs, look for work, or continue working. Funds are available for meals served to children in child care centers or in family day care homes.

Child and Dependent Care Tax Credit for Workers

The Economic Recovery Tax Act of 1981 (ERTA) provides for a tax credit for a portion of the expenses incurred for child or disabled dependent care if the expenditure enables the taxpayer to be gainfully employed. The credit is computed at 30 percent for taxpayers with adjusted gross incomes of $10,000 or less, with the rate of the credit reduced one percentage point for each $2,000, or fraction of $2,000, of income above $10,000 until the rate reaches 20 percent for taxpayers with incomes over $28,000. Expenses for which the credit may be taken are limited to $2,400 for one dependent and $4,800 for two or more dependents.

Tax Incentives for Employers

The 1981 tax law, ERTA, established a new category of tax benefits entitled "Dependent Care Assistance Programs." Prior to the passage of ERTA, some tax advisors feared that, without specific provisions in the tax law, the value of employer-provided child care payments, services, or vouchers would be included in the employee's gross income and taxed. Now, as long as the requirements of the statute are met, the Internal

Revenue Service will treat the new programs as tax-free benefits like other employee fringe benefits such as medical and dental plans, or life insurance.

Tax incentives which may encourage employers to contribute to child care services are provided also in other Federal laws. They relate primarily to investment credits and tax exempt features of contributions.

Dependent Care Assistance Programs

The child care services allowed under a dependent care assistance program include care at the parent's home, at another person's home, or at a child care center. An employer can provide services at an employer-operated child care center or a family day care home, or the employer can provide funds to cover any eligible services that the parent might choose. Employer programs which do not involve actual care for the child, such as parent seminars or information and referral services, would not qualify as dependent care assistance programs.

A dependent care assistance program may be offered by the employer as an option in a "cafeteria" style employee benefits package where the employee selects the options she or he desires. The cost of the dependent care assistance program is tax deductible for the employer.

Other Tax Incentives

Tax incentive provisions of other Federal laws applicable to employers include: accelerated cost recovery and a tax investment credit of 10 percent for capital expenses, amortization of "start-up" and "investigator" expenses, targeted jobs tax credit for certain categories of persons including part-time workers who might be employed by a center, and a variety of provisions relating to charitable contributions and tax-exempt programs.

The Deficit Reduction Act of 1984 provides that capital contributions by employers to Voluntary Employee Benefit Associations (VEBA) for day care purposes can be depreciated for tax purposes over 5 rather than 18 years.

Other Federal Supports for Day Care

- Persons who provide day care services in their homes on a regular basis for compensation may claim a tax deduction for expenses related to the use of the property for business purposes. Day care includes care provided for children, individuals 65 years of age or older, or individuals mentally or physically incapable of self-care.

- The Child Care Food Program, administered by the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA), provides reimbursement for nutritious meals that are served to children in child care centers or in family day care homes. To be eligible for funding, a private child care center or an "umbrella sponsor" of family day care homes must have a Federal tax exemption or be receiving funding under title XX of the Social Security Act. The food reimbursement includes a base rate for all children and increased rates for children from low income families that are eligible for free or reduced-price meals. Reimbursement rates are revised annually.

- The Federal Government provides funding for day care services for children of many persons at or near the poverty level. Under title XX of the Social Security Act, funds are available to such families for child care. Parents in the Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) program may be eligible for an AFDC Work Expenses Allowance to pay for child care so that they can find and continue employment. Participants in the Work Incentive (WIN) program are entitled to child care services that are necessary for the participant to find a job.

- Limited funding for day care services is also available under the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) and the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act.

- In 1984 Congress passed legislation for the development of State and local resource and referral systems to provide information on child care and dependent care services. Additional legislation also provides for development or improvement of programs to furnish child care services before and after school for youngsters ages 5 to 13.

PREGNANCY AND WORKING WOMEN

Despite general prohibitions against sex discrimination, women workers undergoing pregnancy and childbirth met special obstacles that called for the attention of public policy. Some employers fired pregnant workers who were well and able to work. Some school systems determined for a pregnant teacher what month she should leave work and how many months she must remain with her infant before returning to teach.

Many employment-related health insurance policies and temporary disability policies applied to virtually every need for health care except pregnancy and childbirth.

In 1978 Congress amended title VII to clarify the fact that discrimination on the basis of pregnancy, childbirth, or related medical conditions is unlawful. Thus, employers are required to apply the same personnel policies to pregnant employees as they apply to other employees

who are unable to work because of a temporary disability or health condition. The law does not require employers to provide a specific number of weeks for maternity leave or to provide any new benefit programs where none exists.

A woman affected by pregnancy, therefore, receives no less and no more protection than any other employee unable to work for other medical reasons. The courts have ruled that the policy extends maternity benefits to the wives of male employees where the company health plan provides benefits for the husbands of women employees.

Women who work for an employer who has no sick leave or temporary disability plan for any worker continue to be particularly vulnerable to loss of job because of absence from work for childbirth.

Only five States and Puerto Rico have enacted laws requiring temporary disability insurance for all workers. Two State laws which have a special provision for maternity leave exclusively have been challenged. In both cases the State laws have been upheld and the courts rejected arguments that such special provisions for maternity leave discriminate against men on the basis of sex. The issue may receive further attention by the courts. Family-oriented policymakers have suggested a combination of disability insurance for all workers and parental leave without pay for either parent to protect a worker's right to return to the same or a similar job.

Pregnant women faced another obstacle with respect to some State unemployment insurance laws. Under the Federal-State unemployment insurance system benefits are paid to involuntarily unemployed persons who are "able and available" for work. However, some States denied benefits to any pregnant woman, even one who lost work in a general layoff and who continued to seek work. In 1976 Congress remedied this problem by adding a Federal standard that prohibits States from denying benefits solely on the basis of pregnancy for persons able and available for work.

Still another problem in certain work environments is reconciling the need for protection from reproductive hazards with the goal of equal employment opportunity. Some employers have adopted policies or practices which exclude women of childbearing age and pregnant women from jobs involving potential exposure to certain toxic substances (for example, toluene, carbon disulfide, lead, and radiation) because of possible damage to the fetus. In response, women and unions have used union grievance procedures, title VII of the Civil Rights Act, and the Occupational Safety and Health Act to oppose such policies or practices. Whereas two courts have found that forcing pregnant X-ray technicians to leave their job is sex discrimination under title VII, another court has ruled that a company's "fetus protection policy" is not a hazard under the Occupational Safety and Health Act.

Proposed interpretive guidelines on employment discrimination and reproductive hazards were issued by the Department of Labor and the Equal

Employment Opportunity Commission in 1980. Upon reviewing the comments, the agencies concluded that the most appropriate method of eliminating employment discrimination in the workplace where there is potential exposure to reproductive hazards is through investigation and enforcement of the law on a case-by-case basis, rather than by the issuance of interpretive guidelines. They therefore withdrew the proposed guidelines in 1981.

OCCUPATIONAL SAFETY AND HEALTH

Responsibility for United States policy on occupational safety and health is primarily vested in the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) of the U.S. Department of Labor and the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. OSHA enforces the Occupational Safety and Health Act, develops and enforces mandatory safety and health standards pursuant to the act, and assists employers in identifying hazardous conditions and in determining corrective measures. NIOSH is responsible for identifying occupational safety and health hazards, determining methods of controlling them, and recommending Federal standards to limit the hazards.

Since the Occupational Safety and Health Act was enacted in 1970, OSHA has adopted national concensus standards for more than 400 harmful physical agents and has issued proposed, final, or revised standards on acrylonitrile, inorganic arsenic, asbestos, benzene, 14 carcinogens, coke oven emissions, cotton dust, Dibromochloropropane (DBCP), ethylene dibromide, ethylene oxide, lead, and vinyl chloride. Standards may set exposure limits and/or require conditions, or the adoption or use of one or more practices, means, methods or processes such as engineering controls or personal protective equipment reasonably necessary or appropriate to protect workers on the job.

Both industry and unions have brought legal challenges to many of the standards issued, and unions and public interest groups have filed lawsuits to compel the issuance of standards.

Nongovernmental organizations influence policy development through: requests for standard-setting; comments on proposed standards; legal challenges to standards, the lack of standards, or unsafe or unhealthful employment practices; research and development of reports, articles, publications, and educational materials; sponsorship of or participation in conferences; testimony at Congressional and other hearings; and the creation of or participation on task forces, committees, and organizations that deal with occupational safety and health hazards.

Since the late 1970's, renewed attention has been focused on the occupational health and safety hazards to which women are exposed. Some of this attention has been directed at occupational safety and health in industries dominated by or employing a substantial number of women

workers, or at health and safety hazards of particular interest to women. For example, in 1980, the Women's Bureau and OSHA cosponsored a conference on hazards in the textile mills, which employ large numbers of women. NIOSH has funded research on industrial wrist injuries in women and on cancer risks to cosmetologists, and in 1981, held a conference on occupational health issues affecting clerical and secretarial personnel.

A task force appointed in 1983 by the Assistant Secretary for Health in the Department of Health and Human Services recommended that:

- studies should aim to reduce hazards rather than prohibit the employment of women in those occupations found to engender problems;

- studies are necessary to determine the health effects on women being in occupations where large numbers of women are not traditionally employed (for example, blue-collar work and upper level management positions); and

- research should be expanded on the health conditions of women in occupations that are predominantly female, such as clerical work and nursing, and on work in the home.

In 1978 OSHA announced the New Directions grant program under which labor organizations, employer associations, educational institutions, and other nonprofit organizations were offered the opportunity to apply for grants to develop centers of competency providing a wide range of workplace safety and health education and related services. New Directions grants have been awarded to, among others, the Women's Occupational Health Resource Center, the Working Women Education Fund, and the Coalition of Labor Union Women, which have developed materials on such subjects as reproductive health, personal protective equipment, and health hazards for office workers. Other grantees have developed materials on occupational safety and health for women, health and safety for drycleaners and for hairdressers, hazards in the clothing and textile industry, ergonomics, job stress, and video display terminals.

Some attention has been directed at safety and health issues for female workers in traditionally male jobs, for example, the issue of personal protective equipment that fits women. The American National Standards Institute standard for protective footwear was amended in 1983 and a separate performance standard for women's footwear added.

The military services have conducted and continue to conduct studies examining the adequacy of clothing and shoes, tools, and equipment for servicewomen. The International Safety Equipment Manufacturers Association has begun to work on size criteria for protective clothing that takes into account male and female characteristics (it has been pointed out that women's chest depth, hip circumference, and back curvature at the hip are significantly larger than men's and that at every height-weight combination men have significantly larger shoulders than women).

Some attention has been directed at reproductive health hazards for women and men. In mid-1982 Congressional hearings NIOSH testified that in the United States little scientific attention was directed toward workplace hazards to reproduction until the mid-1970's. During the early years of research on the reproductive hazards of work, NIOSH emphasized the hazards to women workers and the potential dangers to the developing fetus from exposures to the mother. The discovery in 1977 that exposure to DBCP was responsible for a number of health effects, including sterility in exposed male workers, turned the attention of both researchers and the public to the potential for workplace exposures to produce serious reproductive effects in men. NIOSH is conducting laboratory and epidemiology studies and supporting research grants in a wide range of reproductive health projects. At the same hearings, OSHA stated that few studies have been conducted of the potential effect on human reproduction of the great majority of potentially toxic materials in the workplace and that there is insufficient information on which to base regulation, other than on a case-by-case basis.

In recent years, more and more attention is being directed at safety and health hazards associated with the use of new technology, such as video display terminals (VDT's). In testimony before the U.S. Congress in 1984, the Director of NIOSH recommended general guidelines on workstation design, illumination, work-rest regimens, and vision testing.

Although the U.S. Congress has held hearings on the health and safety aspects of VDT use, no Federal legislation regulating VDT use has been passed. At least 14 States have introduced legislation and at least 3 States have passed laws to examine problems associated with VDT use or to regulate working conditions.

The computer and business equipment industry is responding to concerns and questions about the use of VDT's through training programs, brochures, articles, and public service announcements. A 1984 survey of 14 employers revealed that 10 had commissioned health or reproductivity studies of problems associated with VDT's and half had developed health and safety policy guidelines specifically related to VDT operators.

Some unions and other organizations have developed sample VDT contract language, guidelines, or bargaining recommendations, or have included VDT provisions in their mandatory bargaining program.

Concern also has been raised about possible safety and health hazards in "high technology" industries, such as the semiconductor industry. Women workers comprised 50 percent of the work force in the electronic component manufacturing industry in 1983. NIOSH has conducted health hazard evaluations of production workers in several semiconductor manufacturing companies after receiving requests from employers, workers, or worker representatives, and in the late 1970's and early 1980's conducted studies of the photovoltaics and semiconductor component manufacturing industries.

SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Significant progress has been made on the difficult question of sexual harassment in the workplace. Once thought to be legally undefinable and to be expected as part of the job, sexual harassment now has been clearly ruled an unlawful practice under title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission's "Guidelines on Discrimination Because of Sex" provide that unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature constitute sexual harassment when:

- Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of an individual's employment;

- Submission to or rejection of such conduct by an individual is used as the basis for employment decisions affecting that person; or

- Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.

Employers have been held accountable for the acts of their supervisors even when the employer has been unaware of the harassment. Further, employers are responsible for sexual harassment by coworkers, customers, and other third parties where the employer knew or should have known of the conduct and did not take immediate corrective action.

Courts have held that an employee who is unable to obtain protection from the employer for the harassment may quit the job and sue as if discharged. Courts have awarded pay until reinstatement with protection against harassment or until a new job with equal pay has been obtained.

Sexual harassment has been found to be also in violation of State tort laws and a State law against the invasion of privacy. Severe instances of sexual harassment involving such things as extortion, assault and battery, or specific sex crimes fall under criminal as well as tort statutes. Dismissal of a victim who failed to comply with a superior's sexual demands can be the basis of a suit for breach of contract. In some States sexual harassment is considered legal "cause" for quitting a job so that a former employee would be eligible for unemployment compensation, but in other States the reverse is true. Case law on sexual harassment is still evolving. Class actions are rare as each case is examined in the light of the totality of evidence submitted.

Preventative measures which may make an employer less vulnerable to legal action include the following:

- issuing a clear policy against sexual harassment;

- o incorporating appropriate training on sexual harassment into supervisory and management courses and new employee orientation;

- o developing and publicizing an appropriate means for victims to seek redress from harassment; and

- o taking immediate action against employees who violate the policy.

EQUAL RIGHTS UNDER THE LAW

During the Decade, major efforts of a number of women's organizations focused on an attempt to secure ratification of an amendment to the U.S. Constitution that would have provided: "Equality of rights under the law shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex. The Congress shall have the power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article." Thirty-five State legislatures voted for ratification before time ran out in June 1982, three States short of the number needed. (Ratification requires approval of three-fourths of the States within a specified time.) While the Equal Rights Amendment (ERA) was introduced again in Congress, legislative energy recently has been invested more in economic and educational issues. Sixteen States have enacted equal rights provisions in their State constitutions.

In a separate approach toward achieving equal rights under the law, the past three Presidents have authorized review of all laws of the U.S. Code as a step toward removing overt sex discrimination or policies that have an adverse impact on women. Many such laws and implementing regulations have been amended to remove discriminatory language, and an omnibus bill before Congress early in 1985 would amend most remaining instances of laws that treat women and men differently.

In 1981 the President undertook a special initiative that invited the Governors of all 50 States to examine their State codes with the purpose of identifying and correcting discriminatory laws. Most States have participated in this Fifty States Project, sharing information and expertise with one another, and with the Office of the President.

INTERNATIONAL POLICY EMPHASIS ON WOMEN

The worldwide focus on women during the United Nations Decade for Women provided many opportunities for representatives of the United States to learn from and contribute to discussions of policies affecting women in the economy of other nations. Task forces and agenda items in the meetings of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the International Labor Organization (ILO), the Organization of American States, and other regional bodies were directed toward the elimination of discrimination and full integration of women in the devel-

opment of their respective countries. The U.S. Congress also has supported this goal. For example, legislation enacted in 1978 provides that the Peace Corps is to be administered so as to give particular attention to programs and activities which tend to integrate women into the national economies of developing countries. Also in 1978, international development assistance legislation required that U.S. bilateral assistance encourage the improvement of women's status as an important means of promoting the total development effort.

Part III. Research Activities of the Women's Bureau

Part 3. RESEARCH ACTIVITIES OF THE WOMEN'S BUREAU

OBJECTIVES

During the latter part of the Decade, the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor initiated five major research studies to gain more knowledge about women's employment opportunities in specific areas. The research findings will be used to develop policy positions, identify areas of need for demonstration projects, and contribute toward the formulation of legislation and programs addressing women's employment and training needs.

RESEARCH FOCUS AND FINDINGS

The research activities, begun in 1983, focus on: the impact of technological change on women's employment opportunities; needs of immigrant, refugee, and entrant women; career transitions of women in professions; the impact of job dislocation; and the effect of military service on post-service employment of women.

Impact of Technological Change

Considerable effort and money have been expended on developing and marketing highly sophisticated word and information processing equipment. Although over 16 million Americans--80 percent of them women--work in clerical and other administrative support jobs, comparatively little research has been done on the impact this rapidly changing technology is having and will have on clerical occupations and the people who earn their living in them.

The Women's Bureau has made a focused attempt to find out what is happening to women workers as a result of technological change. Knowing that research on the subject of women and micro-electronic technology is minimal, the Bureau sponsored a research conference to help determine what is already known, what information is lacking, and what kind of research is needed to answer these critical questions.

A basic question in assessing the future of any occupational field is how many and what kinds of jobs will there be. By increasing productivity and changing office procedures, computer-based technology has a vast potential impact on employment prospects in clerical occupations.

What we don't know--and what we must find out--is how fast office information processing technologies are spreading, how the equipment is

being used, and which occupations are being most impacted. The answers to these questions are of more than academic interest, not only to millions of women who work as bank tellers, secretaries, receptionists, and telephone operators but also to education and training institutions. To prepare tomorrow's work force, these institutions must know tomorrow's jobs.

Based on the recommendations from the conference and the expertise of specialists in the field of technology, the Women's Bureau is developing a series of publications to address such topics as the quality of the new jobs being created, the number and types of new jobs, the training and retraining needs of workers to obtain these jobs, the impact of women working at computer terminals in the home, and the potential for discrimination in "back office" electronic pools.

Immigrant, Refugee, and Entrant Women

The impetus behind this project was the realization, on the part of the Women's Bureau, that the United States has received thousands of foreign-born women since 1980 and that there is no clear understanding of their status in the labor force and their movement toward economic self-sufficiency. This project focused on an assessment of the needs of women who arrived recently in the United States as immigrants, refugees, and entrants. It also analyzed the programs and policies intended to facilitate their entry into the labor market and their movement toward economic self-sufficiency. The groups studied were the Southeast Asian, Haitian, and Hispanic women.

A major finding of this study was that, though these women may come from very different countries and backgrounds, the commonality of their needs is remarkable. They need to be employed. Some of them are single heads of households, and others share the responsibility of providing income needed to support a household. Thus, their economic survival and the survival of their families depend upon their ability to obtain employment.

Many immigrant, refugee, and entrant women are in the labor force, but they have dead-end, minimum wage jobs that force them to remain dependent upon cash assistance programs and other forms of support. The major reason these women are in dead-end jobs or locked out of employment opportunities altogether is that their proficiency in the English language is severely limited--the better the person speaks and understands English, the more likely she is to find and keep a job. However, even if their mastery of English and vocational skills were sufficient for employment, these women would not know how to get and keep a job in America. Reading "help wanted" advertisements, filling out application forms, and calling the employer if they cannot work a particular day are all unfamiliar concepts of the U.S. work ethic.

Aggravating this situation is the fact that the job skills which the majority of these women possess are not needed in the United States. Although many of them worked outside of their home in their own country, their work experience in rural, agricultural societies did not prepare them for employment in an urban, industrialized environment. Thus, they are ill equipped to do work other than unskilled labor--the jobs that force them to remain dependent upon welfare.

Another obstacle to these women's assimilation is their incomplete social adjustment. Not only must they cope with extreme culture shock and the traumas attendant upon leaving their homeland, they must do it within the context of changing family and community structures. The problems stem from both their experiences prior to arriving in the United States and their experiences after resettlement, such as family and generational conflicts precipitated by changes in family members' roles and differing attitudes toward their new culture.

While some appropriate training and employment opportunities do exist, many women cannot take advantage of them because they do not have access to child care and transportation. They have no one to care for their children, or they cannot afford to pay for child care services on their limited incomes. Lack of transportation is an obstacle for similar reasons--either no car or money for gas, or no public transportation available or money for bus fare.

The obstacles facing these women will not disappear of their own accord. The single greatest need is for programs that develop the language skills, vocational skills, and employability skills. While lack of marketable job skills and negligible understanding of the American world of work constitute serious barriers for immigrant, refugee, and entrant women, their limited English language proficiency appears to be the major obstacle. (A Women's Bureau demonstration program on job training in food services for immigrant and refugee women is described in the section on "Mechanisms of Change.")

Career Transitions of Women in Professions

Increasing numbers of women in the United States are entering the labor force and working in jobs that were once the province of men. The overwhelming majority of women in professional occupations, particularly those between the ages of 35 and 55, work in traditionally female professions--teachers, nurses, social workers, librarians, among others. However, the norm of holding one job or continuing in one profession for life has given way to an increasing incidence of transition in jobs and professional work. The pattern is more readily observed and amply described in the literature based on the career transitions of males. Little attention has been given to career transitions experienced by women.

This research project is targeted specifically at identifying under what conditions job changes occur for women in professional occupations. Recent socio-economic trends have contributed to the increased prevalance of job and profession changing and other types of career transitions for women. These trends include: occupational crowding which results in shrinking demands and involuntary exit transition, continued demand for more specialized technically-oriented personnel, personal dissatisfaction in unrewarding and dead-end jobs, a re-examination of work versus family priorities, plus expectations for a longer life span. The published report of this project will include research on the present state of the art of career transitions, identification of patterns of job changes, and an investigation of established programs and practices that have assisted in the reduction of unemployment, and have enabled women to transfer successfully to another career.

Impact of Job Dislocation

A significant proportion of workers who are being displaced from jobs due to plant closings and technological change are women. An examination of these female dislocated workers is necessary since, on average, they come from occupations and industries which are different from those where men are dislocated. These dislocated women were most likely employed as sewers and stitchers in the textile and apparel industries, while the men worked as production operatives in the automotive and steel industries.

Important reasons for giving specific consideration to women and job displacement are the differing labor force experience and general labor market segregation of women in lower paying jobs within occupational groups compared with men in the same group. In addition, many women have the dual role of homemaker and paid worker in the market place. In general, women work outside the home for the same reasons men do--economic need. However, planning for programs to assist dislocated workers must take into account and consider issues relating to women.

Results of the research study will provide an economic profile of dislocated women workers, assessment of the differences between male and female workers who have been displaced, evaluation of governmental policies to assist these women, and recommendations for any policy changes, as well as special projects designed to address the specific transition problems of dislocated women workers.

Transferability of Military Occupational Skills

The latest figures on the female veteran population indicate that the number of female veterans is growing slowly but steadily. In 1984 there were nearly 1.2 million women veterans, over 4 percent of the entire veteran population. The upward trend is expected to continue. It is currently estimated that the number of post-Vietnam era female veterans will

grow annually by about 21,500. Therefore, an increasing number of younger women will be in the female veteran population.

This research project is examining the effects of military service on women's post-service employment and the tranferability of military occupational skills to the civilian employment market. It will identify what further training and retraining efforts are required to accomplish the goal of suitable employment and career tracking for these women.

Part IV. Program Components and Mechanisms Used by the Women's Bureau to Improve Employment Opportunities

Part 4. PROGRAM COMPONENTS AND MECHANISMS USED BY THE WOMEN'S BUREAU TO IMPROVE EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES

OVERVIEW

During the U.N. Decade for Women, the Women's Bureau tested new concepts and conducted experimental projects designed to expand women's employment opportunities and eliminate barriers to their full participation in the labor force. The Bureau also strengthened its cooperative working relationships with a number of entities that are responsible for, or assist in, the training and employment of workers--Federal, State, and local government agencies; educational institutions; business and industry; trade unions; community-based organizations; and women's organizations.

The experiences of employment and training programs in the United States have produced a system of supportive and technical services that address the specific needs of women. The system includes components or elements which have proved effective in preparing women for employment and facilitating their movement into the labor force. Although most of the components are applicable to employment programs that assist any groups to enter a range of occupational areas, the Women's Bureau has focused mainly upon models of training programs that feature nontraditional jobs because of the potential for improving the economic status of women and especially providing a route out of poverty for many. The program components therefore include strategies and processes for removing barriers to women's participation in these jobs.

The Bureau encourages women to consider nontraditional occupations in all categories--professional, technical, managerial, skilled crafts, and others--in which women may find more jobs structured for upward mobility with increasing skill and responsibility. Emphasis has been placed on getting women into the skilled and apprenticeable trades because of the stereotyping and discrimination that prevented their easy access to the better paying nontraditional or male-dominated jobs--defined as those in which 25 percent or fewer women are employed. The fundamental reason why the Bureau advocates that women consider nontraditional occupations in their career plans is that they offer higher pay, better fringe benefits, a wider variety of work schedules, greater job security, and more opportunities for advancement than are offered by many traditionally women's occupations. Women also are being encouraged to enter the growing number of high technology jobs, many of which are mixed--that is, not dominated by males or females.

As women joined the labor force in rapidly growing numbers, primary concerns were to improve women's access to training and to occupations of

their choice. There was also a focus upon outreach, especially to help low income and minority group women overcome employment disadvantages. For the first time, in 1977-78, the Bureau began to develop and secure funding for projects designed to demonstrate techniques for moving women into skilled trades and other nontraditional jobs, and for helping minority women and other unemployed and underemployed women find and keep jobs.

The Bureau assumed a strategic role of educating the general public about the need for women's wide range of occupational choices. At the same time, the Bureau enhanced its position and ability to provide solutions through the direct funding of research and demonstration projects. Using limited resources from the Employment and Training Administration of the U.S. Department of Labor, the Bureau funded experimental projects which devised innovative techniques for meeting the unique needs of various groups of women including single heads of households; ex-offenders or inmates in correctional institutions; business owners; and rural, teen, and minority women.

To develop and implement projects the Bureau sought organizations with a capability to provide a range of services and with some sensitivity to the special needs of women. For example, as more women became aware of opportunities in the fields of steady occupational growth, as well as skilled trades and apprenticeship programs, a number of specialized services or components were utilized to assist them to obtain admission. After more than a decade of experience and field testing in a number of cities across the country, programs have been developed for offering information, training, and support to women who are considering nontraditional careers.

The components included in such programs vary, however, with the needs of the specific group and the purpose of the project, the availability of resources in a local community, and the responsiveness of those resources to serving women interested in nontraditional employment. The availability of funds also dictates the extent to which the components can be provided.

PROGRAM COMPONENTS

The principal concepts or primary components of employment programs, as described below, have been adapted across the country to address the special needs of target groups. They are: outreach; recruitment; counseling, assessment, and test preparation; training referral; skills training; job development and placement; and followup. A physical fitness component is often required in preparation for nontraditional employment.

Outreach

The primary function is to reach out to the public to promote general awareness about and interest in a particular occupation or employment-related program. Outreach is also designed to educate and to disseminate information on program activities that respond to the concerns and needs of the target population. In addition to reaching eligible women with information about training and employment opportunities, an objective also is to reach role models to solicit their participation in providing positive reinforcement and mentoring for girls and women who may be considering nontraditional careers.

Recruitment

This is a very specific targeting component. It narrows the group to be served from the public at large to specific groups of women, for example, youth or women who are the sole support of families. Many women who participate in Women's Bureau projects have not been reached through the usual recruitment methods. Therefore, specialized approaches are necessary to convince women of advantages and benefits of programs designed to meet their special needs. The recruitment phase continues the education process, as it provides for systematic orientation of women in a supportive setting. When a program develops a comprehensive plan for ongoing recruitment, women are identified in advance as potential applicants interested in the program when it begins accepting applications.

A viable recruitment plan may include the following strategies:

- Wide dissemination of a good brochure that describes the program's services to women who wish to become employable or employed, especially into communities identified for specific targeting;

- Use of the media to reach potential program participants. A nonprofit organization can accomplish this through the use of free public service announcements provided by radio and television stations;

- Development of linkages with other organizations serving women in the community such as coordination with public social service and employment agencies to identify potential program participants. The communication will provide a source of referral of women interested in nontraditional employment and will provide information regarding the services available to women;

- Special projects effective in reaching a wide range of women, such as sponsoring career fairs for the trades in cooperation with local contractors, or having local elected officials proclaim a day or week for nontraditional working women and arranging events throughout that period to highlight program activities.

Counseling, Assessment, and Test Preparation

Counseling

The skill, interest, work and life experiences, and level of education and training of individual women determine the amount and type of counseling needed. A major goal of this component is to help applicants make employment decisions and narrow their areas of interest. Therefore, adequate information and exposure to the demands of the labor market are necessary to facilitate well-informed decisions. In addition, women often need help to solve problems they experience because of their life circumstances, and which become barriers to their opportunities for training and employment.

Both individual and group counseling sessions provide excellent opportunities for sharing information and they may afford women their first opportunity to discuss working in nontraditional settings. Individual counseling offers an opportunity for women to discuss personal employment-related issues that they may find difficult to discuss in a group situation. For example, some women may need supportive services relating to financial, legal, or health care; child care arrangements; transportation; books; tuition; clothing; or equipment. Group sessions, on the other hand, offer peer support and shared information which may range from employment rights in the event of sexual harassment, to job safety procedures, to detailed information about nontraditional occupations--the skills, training, education, and entry requirements, and how to find and keep jobs that offer good wages and benefits.

Assessment

The assessment process helps applicants to evaluate realistically their alternatives by defining their levels of learning, aptitudes, abilities, behaviors, and interests. It helps women transform their basic skills and abilities in preparation for entry into the world of work, especially nontraditional jobs, and helps them realize their potential as workers.

Test Preparation

Tutoring for test preparation may be a necessary part of employment and training programs. Even if examinations are not required for admission into training programs or for entry level jobs, tutoring may be necessary to ensure advancement beyond entry level positions. When the job being considered is in the skilled trades, tutoring should be trade specific. However, since most apprenticeship and trade examinations require aptitude in the technical sciences, particular emphasis should be placed on mathematics, problem-solving, spatial relationships, mechanical reasoning, blueprint reading, and English. Some trades may require basic knowledge of physics or chemistry. Strategies for reducing math anxiety, if it is a problem, should be included in the test preparation process.

Training Referral

This component connects women to viable training resources. Many women are not aware of either the broad range of occupations or the training available to them; conversely, many training programs are not aware that women are interested. Therefore, this part of the program acts to link women to high schools, community colleges, technical schools, or other training opportunities.

When considering the skilled crafts, preapprenticeship training is essential for participants who have little or no experience and knowledge of the tools and skills used or have not made a decision on the occupation they wish to pursue. Some participants may not need preapprenticeship training but may benefit from other services such as preparation for oral interviews or information on admission requirements. Other participants are referred directly to an apprenticeship program or industrial employment.

Skills Training

This component provides women access to skills training programs. It includes classroom training, internships, and on-the-job training in both traditional and nontraditional areas. It is most effective when the training is geared to an available job or occupation that is generally in demand in a given labor market.

Job Development and Placement

The objective of this component is to match the right woman with the right job. Job development identifies the needs of employers for workers with specific skills and abilities. It also determines where expanding job opportunities exist in the local area. To carry out this function, a careful labor market analysis is necessary. This process also ensures that emphasis is not placed on any particular area of employment, such as the construction, mechanical, or the metal working trades; or food preparation and health fields, to the exclusion of other newly developing occupational choices, such as electronics and computer applications. Jobs with decreasing employment opportunities in one geographical area may be burgeoning in another.

The job development and placement function requires consistent contact and followup with personnel directors; equal employment opportunity officers; and representatives of building trades councils, labor/management offices, the State Apprenticeship Councils, chambers of commerce, and the State Job Service.

Followup

Follow-up activities are essential if a program is to maximize placement and retention of women in nontraditional jobs. Effective followup, through technical assistance and problem-solving advice, helps newly hired women as well as employers during difficult periods of adjustment. Women are encouraged to form or become involved in support groups to share experiences, information, resources, and solutions to job-related problems.

Followup after placement should routinely include: interim employment assistance; assistance in achieving upgrading; encouragement; and the assistance of experts to discuss legal rights, procedures for complaints, and other relevant issues as necessary.

Physical Fitness

The physical demands of many nontraditional jobs require that a woman possess some degree of fitness and stamina. Therefore, a physical fitness component is essential when preparing women for such occupations. Generally, the regimen includes exercises and tests that develop strength and ability relevant to the job for which the applicant is being trained. It also may include exposure to noise levels and excessive heat and cold associated with different occupations, as well as information on appropriate dress and diet needed to endure or tolerate the demands of the job.

PROGRAM EVALUATION

Evaluation is an essential tool to ensure the effectiveness of a program. A good evaluation instrument should be designed before program implementation in order to establish a system for gathering adequate data that, through analysis, will determine if the program is meeting its goals. Ongoing monitoring and evaluation of programs also may enable program staff to recognize emerging problems before they become a threat to the effectiveness of the program.

Indicators of Program Effectiveness

Programs generally have different objectives which suggest the kinds of indicators of effectiveness for program evaluation. For example, indicators for skills training programs include measures of participants' attainment of relevant skill competencies reflected in test scores or instructor evaluations and how well the attainment of these competencies predict job placement and retention rates. Indicators of the effectiveness of programs to provide occupational information measure changes in participants' knowledge and changes in attitudes toward nontraditional jobs. For programs in which the activities are related only indirectly

to the elimination of discrimination, indicators of changes in the level and scope of recruitment efforts by employers and unions and changes in the number of women applying for nontraditional job openings provide measures of effectiveness.

These indicators measure success in improving knowledge and abilities believed to be associated with economic gains for participants. They are used in process evaluation. Impact evaluation determines whether economic gains for participants would have occurred without the program, and focuses on changes in employment and earnings as the major indicators of program effectiveness. The decision on whether a program should be targeted for a process or impact evaluation is based on the intended use of the results and the allocation of resources to conduct the evaluation program.

Evaluation Objectives

Evaluations are likely to collapse into an effort to reconstruct program activities if evaluation is not considered an integral part of the design of a program and treated equally in importance with service delivery components. Cooperation between program planners and evaluators is necessary to specify program objectives in terms suitable for measurement, to distinguish between primary and secondary program objectives, and to define data collection requirements.

The most important question that planners and evaluators must answer is the use of the evaluation results--whether they will be used to adjust the mix of program services to achieve the best results from a given type of program or whether they will help decide on reallocation of resources between different types of programs. Evaluation studies for program development compare successful projects to determine which characteristics account for success and whether the favorable outcomes can be replicated. Studies for resource allocation incorporate a representative range of variation in program models and success rates to determine whether outcomes across programs are significantly different from those that would have occurred in their absence.

MECHANISMS OF CHANGE

Through the operation of experimental or pilot programs, the Women's Bureau has developed mechanisms that have increased its base of knowledge about specific groups of women and have demonstrated better techniques for outreach and service to them. Many of the Bureau's ongoing programs and activities do not require special funding. The approaches and strategies of both the ongoing and specially funded programs represent the mechanisms by which change is accomplished for the benefit of large numbers of women, particularly as successful projects are replicated throughout the Nation. Following are descriptions of a number of Women's Bureau initiatives which have utilized all or some of the components

described in the previous section, or have pursued other promising strategies.

Employer-Sponsored Child Care Strategies

Throughout the Decade, as well as in prior years, the Women's Bureau addressed the issue of child care. In 1982, however, the Bureau intensified its focus on child care as an issue of the highest priority facing workers, particularly women workers. The need for reliable and affordable quality child care is recognized as a continuing barrier to improving training and employment opportunities for large numbers of women. Building on its previous work in this area, the Bureau began an initiative to promote employer-sponsored child care systems in the private sector by encouraging employers to take advantage of tax incentives and other benefits associated with the availability of child care to employees. Using a national and regional approach, activities undertaken included the development of pilot projects to demonstrate a variety of options and services which respond to child care needs, provision of technical assistance to employers and other individuals and groups interested in addressing the child care issue, and the dissemination of information relevant to the need for and responses to child care.

The Bureau joined with the Rockefeller Foundation in a 5-year experimental project to assist minority single heads of households who are economically disadvantaged. Four community-based organizations were funded to provide training and job placement (Foundation funded) and to develop innovative techniques for providing child care services (the Bureau-funded component of the project). In addition to addressing both the employment and child care needs of female-headed families, the organizations are endeavoring to increase the awareness of employers to the effects of parenting responsibilities on the productivity of employees. The four organizations implementing the initiative are the Atlanta Urban League, Atlanta, Georgia; Center for Employment Training, San Jose, California; Opportunities Industrialization Center, Providence, Rhode Island; and Wider Opportunities for Women, Washington, D.C.

In addition to the joint effort with the Rockefeller Foundation, the Bureau's initiatives include regional activities which resulted in the establishment of 18 employer-supported child care systems ranging from hospital on-site centers, to voucher systems adopted by a corporation, to information and referral systems instituted by several firms.

The Bureau also provided technical assistance and printed materials to help implement the White House Private Sector Initiative on child care. Women's Bureau publications on Employer-Supported Child Care--research, tax legislation, and a how-to guide--were distributed in the kit of materials at each of the White House meetings with corporate leaders.

The Bureau produced the first comprehensive videotape of national scope on employer involvement in child care, "The Business of Caring," and held a premiere showing for members of Congress and key government officials in June 1984. The film, depicting a variety of options and child care services supported by the private sector, is distributed on loan to employers, community groups, child care providers, employee benefits and management consulting firms, governmental units, the media, and others concerned with employment-related child care.

Youth Programs

Between 1978 and 1982 the Women's Bureau administered a dozen experimental projects to find solutions to a number of employment-related problems of young women. Some projects sought effective ways to help young women make the transition from school to work, while others were directed toward helping adolescent mothers who, because of early motherhood, often drop out of school and do not acquire job skills.

School-to-Work Transition: WINC (Women in Nontraditional Careers)

In response to a growing awareness that young people, especially young women, were not being provided effective help in making the transition from being students to becoming workers, the Women's Bureau developed five school-to-work demonstration projects between 1978 and 1980. The programs were designed to create awareness among women 16 to 21 years of age, and to focus on nontraditional occupational choices because the preparation would enable them to face the realities of the world of work and to secure jobs that provide higher pay, better fringe benefits, greater job security, and more opportunities for advancement than are offered by traditional "women's work." The initiative demonstrated how schools, the community, and local government could assume the responsibility for implementing the programs and how services could be combined to enhance the achievement of the goal--sound career choices by high school women. Varying combinations of community-based organizations and school systems in different parts of the country were utilized in the five demonstrations.

All of the programs featured common elements that helped young women become aware of the realities of their future economic outlook, the Women's Bureau chose to replicate one of the demonstration projects which was developed in Portland, Oregon, called Women in Nontraditional Careers (WINC). WINC incorporated into a single program most of the requisites of an effective nontraditional careers school-to-work transition program. The three major components of the program are:

- Classroom instruction to provide students with occupational and labor market information;

- Nontraditional job exploration in the community by the students;

- o Training of school personnel to become aware of the need for nontraditional career planning for young women and how occupational choice may affect lifetime earnings potential.

During the 2-year (1978-80) demonstration effort in the Portland, Oregon, public school system, 11 of the high schools participated in the program, serving 120 young women who were juniors and seniors in high school, and who were interested in exploring nontraditional careers. A curriculum and special teaching materials were developed to implement the WINC concepts.

Based on the knowledge and expertise acquired through this pilot project, the Women's Bureau held a series of regional training workshops during 1981 to 1984. The purpose was to provide a forum for school administrators and other personnel to discuss the need to integrate WINC concepts and processes into the secondary education system.

In February 1985 the Bureau convened a national conference to introduce the WINC concepts and processes to policymakers, administrators, and program developers as the basis for integrating the ideas into conventional programs and policies for youth. The involvement of major youth serving agencies and organizations was deemed crucial if the ultimate goal of institutional change is to take place. The 1985 conference also inaugurated a new phase of the WINC program: that of expanding its capacity to assist more young people, including those being served under such programs as Job Corps, JTPA Summer Youth Programs, apprenticeship programs, and offender programs. The WINC concepts are adaptable as well to employment and training programs operated by community-based organizations.

Adolescent Mothers

The six "teen mother" or "sole parent" programs were based on program components conceptualized at a Bureau-sponsored conference which included educators, health professionals, and program administrators who assisted teen women during or after pregnancy. The components focused on: educational aspects including basic education and the need to remain/return to school, as well as immediate job skills, work attitudes, and long-range career plans that considered the benefits of nontraditional occupations; child care as a support service while the young women continued their education or pursued employment training; counseling which responded to such diverse concerns as building a positive image, "big sister" peer counseling, and support during stressful periods after childbirth and prior to entering the workplace; and links with community services to provide health care, parenting skills, and other support services.

The programs were primarily school-based or community-based and were operated during 1980-82 by the Girls Clubs of America, Pittsfield, Massachusetts; National Council of Negro Women, New Orleans, Louisiana; Northern California Women for Apprenticeship, Sacramento, California; Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA) of Greater Miami and Dade

County, Florida; YWCA of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; and Minneapolis Board of Education in Minnesota.

National Initiative on the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA)

The Nation's major employment and training program for economically disadvantaged persons is provided for in the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) of 1982, which replaced the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act. As soon as the legislation was enacted, the Women's Bureau issued a publication summarizing and analyzing the major provisions of the law, particularly as they related to employment and training for women, and took steps to ensure that women and women's organizations were familiar with the act's provisions and the available services.

Subsequently the Bureau developed and sponsored workshops using an overall theme, "JTPA: Its Implementation and Impact on Women." The workshop design proved effective in sharing information and providing opportunities for discussion of strategies which may be used in accessing the JTPA system to ensure that women are served adequately. The format focused on the responsibility for JTPA at different levels--the Federal level and particularly the State and local levels where the major decisionmaking and implementation occur.

Among the participants at more than 20 workshops around the country were State and local officials, Governors, Mayors, private industry council (PIC) representatives, community college administrators; business leaders, program operators, and leaders of women's organizations.

Women are indeed participating in JTPA. Preliminary data show that women constituted approximately 53 percent of participants in the basic training during the first program year. Provisions of JTPA are described under Part 2, "Policy Development."

Women in Apprenticeship Initiative

The Women in Apprenticeship Training Initiative (WIA) was a national project conceptualized and developed in 1980-81. Implementation of the workshop design began in 1982, in cooperation with the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, to increase the awareness and efforts of employers and program sponsors in the recruitment, placement, and retention of women in apprenticeship and nontraditional occupations. Emphasis was placed on women's ability to perform such jobs and their interest in and need for jobs that pay good wages.

Each of the 10 regional offices of the Bureau established a regional action planning group consisting of representatives of Federal and State apprenticeship agencies, employment and training sponsors, the Employment Service, the Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs (OFCCP), program operators, employers, unions, and educational institutions.

Assistance was sought also from the Work Incentive Program (WIN) and women's organizations. Regional training coordinators conducted the training workshops attended by employers, union representatives, educators, apprenticeship agency staff, community-based organization representatives, and women's groups in about 45 cities across the country. In most cities the training was provided in 1-day workshops that focused on community involvement and were structured to create an organization, task force, or network for followup.

A concrete example of the impact of the WIA workshops is The YWCA Pre-Apprenticeship Training Program, which grew out of the "Women in Apprenticeship Initiative." This YWCA project has gained credibility in the Atlanta area and receives continuing job development assistance from the Atlanta Coalition for Women in Nontraditional Jobs. The Coalition was formed by representatives from private industry, labor unions, and governmental and social service agencies who had attended the Women's Bureau workshop. These interested individuals committed themselves to support the newly-established YWCA training program. The Atlanta Pre-Apprenticeship Program has been greatly enhanced through the efforts of the Coalition, which has taken a major role in both job development and placement efforts.

Displaced Homemakers Network

Since 1980 a number of special demonstration projects have been developed and funded to provide counseling, training, jobseeking skills, and placement to displaced homemakers in their search for economic self-sufficiency. Displaced homemakers are defined generally as those persons beyond age 35 who, through death, divorce, or separation of the spouse, have lost the primary source of their income in the household and have few or no marketable skills because of an extended absence from the labor force.

Since 1982 the Women's Bureau has continued to fund the Displaced Homemakers Network to provide technical assistance to more than 400 local displaced homemaker programs throughout the country. The Network News, published bimonthly, provides information on resource materials, research findings, program techniques, and additional resources useful to displaced homemaker service providers. Other channels of assistance to program operators include a Directory of Displaced Homemaker Programs, conferences, workshops, and contacts on critical issues including fund-raising possibilities, job development strategies, entrepreneurship, and impact of new legislation such as the Job Training Partnership Act. The Network also addresses the concerns of individual local programs. (Additional efforts to assist displaced homemakers are described under "Business Development" projects.)

Project Discovery

Project Discovery was launched in 1983 in Baltimore, Maryland, as a pilot symposium to address the needs of middle-income minority women whose economic status had been adversely affected because of changes in marital status. The project focuses on the needs of women 35 to 50 years of age who are seeking to enter or reenter the workplace because of divorce, separation, or widowhood; who have lost jobs due to reductions-in-force (RIF's); and who are trying to move out of unfulfilling or dead-end jobs.

The program consists primarily of workshop sessions encompassing self-awareness, career exploration, transfer of job skills, resource awareness, networking, and exposure to the job marketplace. It is being implemented for the Bureau by the Links, a nonprofit national organization comprised chiefly of black women. A follow-up workshop provides program participants an opportunity to share employment-related experiences which occurred in the interim. The Project Discovery workshop model is being replicated in other areas of the country.

High Technology Training for Single Heads of Households

The project, sponsored by the Women's Bureau in conjunction with the State of Washington Community College District 17, explored the use of community colleges as a training resource for this particular group, as well as the effectiveness of short-term training for high technology jobs. The participants were mainstreamed into existing college courses. The program also included workshops covering support skills and job search techniques to enhance employability and retention in jobs.

The project effectively demonstrated the feasibility of short-term (6 months) community college training as a means of increasing the employability of low income women who maintain families. While participants in these condensed programs did not complete all of the requirements necessary for community college certificate programs, the training did increase employability and retention in jobs.

National Job Fair Initiative

The Job Fair initiative was undertaken in 1982 to assist women in securing private sector employment by (1) making them aware of the range of potential job opportunities available in the local labor market, and (2) providing a mechanism for them to identify and compete for specific job openings. This initiative was based on a pilot program (Operation Talent Bank) which had been implemented in Westchester County, New York, by the Bureau's New York regional office and the Westchester County Office for Women. Subsequently each of the remaining nine regional offices of the Bureau sponsored at least one Job Fair.

In view of the success of Operation Talent Bank, it was determined that the national initiative would follow a similar strategy, having in each of the other Bureau regions two components--a Job Fair of 1 or 2 days followed by a job matching or "employment exchange" system. These would provide the opportunity for linkages between government, community-based organizations, and the private sector in addressing local unemployment problems.

The Fairs provided an opportunity for participating women to explore the local job market by putting them in direct contact with area employers. Moreover, participants were assisted by counselors providing advice on how to document marketable skills and develop a job search strategy. Participants were afforded the opportunity to register for a talent bank that would provide a clearinghouse for linkage between employers and potential jobseekers who were on the registry. This initiative represented a results-oriented approach to reducing unemployment among women workers and stressed direct private sector involvement.

Coal Employment Project

This project, located in five Tennessee counties--Anderson, Campbell, Claiborne, Morgan, and Scott--emerged from a study undertaken to determine the extent to which women were interested in coal mining and employers were willing to hire them. Based on the findings, the Coal Employment Project was funded in part by the Women's Bureau to develop an advocacy (Coal Mining Support Team), training, and placement network which significantly increased the number of women coal miners. Advocacy was directed at opening opportunities for women throughout the coal mining industry by stimulating enforcement of equal employment opportunity and affirmative action laws and regulations.

The training included 40 hours beyond the number required by Tennessee mining officials for certification. This enrichment program included support needed by women to survive in this new work environment. A training manual was developed on safety and health and employment rights to meet the special needs of women entering the coal industry. The Coal Employment Project staff worked closely with State vocational departments, mine owners, and the United Mine Workers.

National Women's Employment and Education Project

This special effort to assist Hispanic low income women to become job ready and gain work skills served women who were heads of families, AFDC recipients, or former migrant women in the San Antonio, Texas, area. The project, funded initially by the Women's Bureau in 1978, provided special outreach information and recruitment efforts to acquaint the women with the program and its purpose. The applicants then were given pre-employment counseling, world-of-work orientation, and other supportive

training. Special efforts were made to provide for child care and transportation needs. Follow-up activities and participation in a support group encouraged job retention and helped the women to deal with common problems.

The training design was quite different from traditional programs. The thrust was to move women quickly into jobs after only 2 to 3 weeks of classroom experience and job site visits to acquire job readiness skills. One interesting feature of this program was job development, in which "packages" of jobs were identified first, then women were recruited to fill those jobs or to enter training programs. The package might consist of several kinds of jobs with a single employer, or it might include only one kind of job, such as electrical worker, with one or more employers. The project has been replicated in several areas of the country.

Business Development

Enterprise Training Centers: Occupational Development for Utah's Rural Displaced Homemakers

Focusing on the dual objectives of assisting displaced homemakers prepare for entry into the world of work and securing unsubsidized employment in fields of steady occupational growth, this initiative provides intensive occupational development and skills training to rural displaced homemakers in Utah. The ultimate goal of the project is the development of a program of services that will continue after Federal funding ceases. This is being accomplished through the identification and mobilization of local resources to continue program operations through the two Enterprise Training Centers now being funded by the Women's Bureau. A replicable program model also is being developed to serve the needs of displaced homemakers in other parts of the country.

Start on Success (SOS) Program

To assist displaced homemakers and mature women who have limited access to resources necessary for independent economic security, the Women's Bureau in 1982 contracted with the Door Opener in Mason City, Iowa, to develop and implement a project on entrepreneurship training. The organization provided training to low income displaced homemakers and mature women who have the potential to be successfully self-employed. They learned how to organize their approach, market their services, and run their own businesses.

Corporate Women

Corporate Linkage Project

In 1983 the Bureau initiated a project on "Women and the Corporate Ladder--Corporate Linkage" to: identify how women advance into upper

levels of management in industry and business; analyze programs and practices in major corporations whose goals are to enhance the mobility of professional women; and develop an occupational outlook on prospective opportunities for the employment of women in professional and managerial positions in emerging new technologies.

As part of this effort, key executives were interviewed to identify successful programs that contribute to the advancement of women in the corporate sector. In addition to the data collected during these interviews, a Corporate Round Table comprised of representatives from business and industry, government, and academia was assembled. The purpose was to develop a corporate linkage process model through which the Women's Bureau can work with public agencies and private companies to identify the best means to accomplish the goal of increased upward mobility for professional women in industry and business.

Institute for the Advancement of Black Females in Corporations

The Institute addressed issues confronting the black female in the corporate sector, and was part of a project to develop a model program which may be useful to black institutions of higher education in preparing black women for advancement to leadership positions. Noting the lack of executive development programs that address the needs of minority women, the Women's Bureau contracted with Howard University in Washington, D.C., to develop a model that addressed the needs of both mature black women and younger black women students.

In September 1982 the Institute was held at Howard University, and involved representatives from corporations, government, academia, and students. Recommendations were made about the need for: instructional materials to address the concerns of black women corporate executives, internships/apprenticeships, and continuing research.

Corporate Governance and the Advancement of Women

This project was designed to establish a dialogue with corporate board women focusing on: private sector programs and policies to provide opportunities for women working in corporations; ways to facilitate opportunities for women-owned businesses; and the development of networks and leadership activities such as mentoring roles. The dialogue was implemented through a series of five regional conferences during 1981-82. The conferences represented a second phase of the project, the first of which (during 1979-80) consisted of a directory and a profile analysis study of women serving on boards of for-profit corporations with 500 or more employees. Conference participants were women board members and representatives of upper management from larger corporations and some women who owned businesses. The discussion centered on the need to help more women move from entry-level jobs into mid and upper level management positions and ways to assist women within their own companies.

Women Offenders

Apprenticeship Project

Women in prison today are young, poorly educated, and have limited occupational skills. Between 1975 and 1983, although the number of female offenders increased, their proportion of the total adult offender population remained unchanged at around 4 to 6 percent.

To help prepare women offenders to enter the labor force after their release from prison, and to enable them to obtain jobs that pay well enough to sustain them and their families economically, the Women's Bureau has advocated that women receive adequate education and training while incarcerated. Toward that end, in 1978 the Women's Bureau conducted a national conference with State corrections officials to explore ways of improving employment and training programs for women in prisons. Since then, significant developments have occurred in training opportunities made available to women in both Federal and State prisons.

The Bureau developed its cooperative relationship with the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training and with the Bureau of Prisons to promote apprenticeship training for incarcerated women. As a result, in the five Federal institutions that house women and in at least 17 State prisons, apprenticeship training is offered or programs are being developed. The Federal Correctional Institution at Alderson, West Virginia, which has the largest apprenticeship program in existence in an all-female institution, is considered the model upon which other prison apprenticeship programs can be patterned. The Alderson program normally has 50 to 80 apprentices in 19 skilled trade areas. The trades, mostly nontraditional for women, include: plumber, painter, electrician, auto mechanic, steamfitter, air-conditioning/refrigeration mechanic, firefighter, and sewing machine repairer.

In November 1982, a major accomplishment was the signing of a Linkage System Agreement for apprentices released from Alderson to the Washington D.C., area. This Agreement was approved by the Federal Bureau of Prisons, the Women's Bureau, the Alderson warden, District of Columbia and area correctional officials, the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, and the District of Columbia Apprenticeship Council. It commits the agencies involved to a concerted effort to support the apprenticeship program at Alderson, and to assist the apprentices returning home to continue their apprenticeships in union or employer programs, or to find jobs in their chosen trades. In September 1984 the Agreement was expanded to give assistance to all apprentices released from Alderson no matter where in the United States they go. It is hoped that these agreements will establish a model for post-release service that could be extended to all inmates in apprenticeship programs at Federal and State prisons.

Network on Female Offenders

The Network is an informal association of organizations and individuals from the District of Columbia and neighboring States of Maryland and Virginia interested in exchanging information and ideas on the problems and needs of female offenders. Started by the Women's Bureau in 1979, it developed out of a need to address the status of women offenders and ex-offenders and the problems they confront. As a result, individuals from more than 60 local, State, and Federal agencies and community-based organizations formed the Network to coordinate efforts and to pursue improved services for women offenders. Members are on staff at criminal justice planning boards, jails, prisons, half-way houses, Federal and State correctional agencies, Commissions on the Status of Women, National and State women's organizations, projects and programs with a concern for female offenders, and Congressional committees. Meetings, held quarterly, usually consist of a panel discussion on issues affecting women offenders and a series of updates or short reports on legislative matters, private agency programs, government initiatives, and court cases.

Rural Women

Project IDEA (Individual Development and Entrepreneurial Activities)

To address the needs of impoverished rural women in the Mississippi Delta, and to develop a training model for use in similar situations in other areas of the country, the Bureau in 1982 undertook a pilot effort with Coahoma Junior College in Clarksdale, Mississippi. The program provided vocational technical training in nontraditional skills and job placement assistance to minority women 35 years of age and older who maintain families.

Project IDEA is an example of a partnership effort between the Federal Government and educational institutions to prepare economically disadvantaged persons to enter the job market. It was an effective program for serving the needs of rural low income women who lack marketable skills and may be displaced farm workers. Training was provided in such areas as construction masonry, welding, carpentry, entrepreneurial skills, law enforcement, and paramedic technology.

Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway Construction Project

This cooperative project was undertaken to increase the participation of women in construction work connected with the Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway and grew out of the Bureau's concern for the low economic status of southern rural women. The activities included special outreach to women and coordination with unions, contractors, State and local governments, and community-based organizations to develop targeted recruitment, training, and placement efforts. As a direct result of this outreach,

female employment participation did increase. At the peak of construction, the Federal goals for women in construction were met.

Successful retention methods were adopted by working directly with the unions and nonunion contractors to increase the numbers and retention rates of women. Several training programs were initiated and efforts were put forth to recruit, train, and place women in these nontraditional jobs which afforded rural women an opportunity to enter the nontraditional construction work force in a very positive manner.

Women's Opportunity Program

This initiative in rural Mississippi was implemented by the National Council of Negro Women to provide recruitment, pre-employment orientation, and placement to rural women in Okolona and Issaquena during 1978-80. Some of the problems affecting these women were lack of institutions which could prepare them to enter the job market; lack of transportation in a remote area; lack of services such as running water, telephones, and sewage systems; and lack of job opportunities.

Appalachian Women's Employment Information Project

Operated by the American Friends Service Committee in 1978-80, this project demonstrated techniques that enabled rural Appalachian women in seven counties of Kentucky, Virginia, and West Virginia to gain higher levels of employment, greater participation in job training programs, and increased utilization and availability of social services related to job stability and success. Because the region is mountainous, access to information at a central location is virtually unavailable to many of the low income or unemployed women. Therefore, mobile units were designed to take employment information and resource people into hollows and hills of Appalachia to provide counseling, referral to training and placement services, and other employment information.

Immigrant/Refugee Women

Job Training in Food Services

In 1982 the Organization of Chinese American Women, under contract with the Women's Bureau, designed and conducted a program in Washington, D.C., to improve the employment skills of Chinese American women by emphasizing food preparation and management techniques used in restaurants, catering firms, and other food services. An objective of the project was to encourage national women's organizations and program operators to respond to the unique needs of immigrant and refugee women who face many barriers because they are not proficient in the English language, are not familiar with work ethics and customs in this country, and lack skills needed in the U.S. job market. A by-product of the project was a program model suitable for replication in other areas with large immigrant, refugee, and entrant populations.

Asian/Pacific American (APA) Women's Employment Project

The major thrust was a series of community consultations bringing leadership APA women and community resources together. These dialogues were held in 1980 to identify the economic and employment needs of APA women, especially new immigrants and refugees. The information gathered at the consultations served as a guide for subsequent research and demonstration projects of the Women's Bureau which focus on the training and employment of immigrant, refugee, and entrant women. (A research initiative is described under Part 3, "Research Activities of the Women's Bureau.")

Union Women's Project

To address the issues related to increasing the number of women holding responsible positions on the staffs of unions, the Women's Bureau in 1980 contracted with the Department for Professional Employees, AFL-CIO, to develop the Women's Project. Activities included: conducting a survey of the affiliated unions, focusing solely on women in appointed staff positions; designing a pilot staff development conference that focused on three skills deemed necessary for career advancement--organizational effectiveness, professional effectiveness, and personal effectiveness; establishing a clearinghouse of information including statistical data, research studies, bibliographies, and educational and other materials; and developing publications covering women in professional and technical occupations, safety and health risks of professional women office workers, and upgrading and promotion strategies, which were contained in a handbook for union staff women and a training guide for staff development conferences for union women.

Commissions on the Status of Women

For more than two decades, commissions on the status of women have been serving as official advocates for women by advising Governors, Mayors, county executives, and legislatures on issues of concern to women. During this time the number of active State and local commissions has grown dramatically. As of June 1984 there were commissions in 39 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico, and in about 175 localities.

A study of Commissions on the Status of Women revealed a wider range of structure and programs. In the beginning the majority of commissions were created by executive order, but increasingly they have been established by legislative mandate. In this way, although appointments to commissions frequently change with new administrations, the commissions themselves continue.

Over the years some commissions have been attached to units of government such as departments of labor or human services, or in a few

cases they have become a full-fledged governmental unit, such as the Women's Bureau in Louisiana and the Women's Unit in the Governor's Office in New York. Some commissions receive legislative appropriations and hire executive directors and/or other staff. Others operate only with volunteers. The commissions vary in size but most average 15 to 25 members.

The Women's Bureau has maintained a close relationship with commissions, providing technical assistance in program areas, serving as informal liaison, compiling current rosters, and cosponsoring regional meetings of commissions. The Bureau's mandate to promote the welfare of wage-earning women is also a priority of most commissions.

Among the activities in which commissions are involved are: establishing rosters of qualified women for public appointment; improving job opportunities for low income women; improving guidance and counseling for women and girls; promoting day care services; establishing services for displaced homemakers; and encouraging women to enter nontraditional occupations. These activities have been accomplished through methods such as publishing and distributing materials, advocacy, public hearings, conferences, and the operation of employment and training programs which provide direct services to the client population.

Symposia

The Women's Bureau utilized the forum of symposia as an effective mechanism for gathering information firsthand from experts in a variety of fields. These 1- or 2-day conferences initiated by the Bureau were cooperative efforts with educational institutions and women's organizations. They offered opportunities for dialogue on issues critical to employment and training of the Bureau's diverse constituencies.

In sites across the country, the symposia involved public policymakers, researchers, and high technology specialists, as well as other persons in private enterprise, corporations, unions, academia, the media, and women's organizations. These individuals shared their knowledge and perceptions about specific issues and offered recommendations for future Women's Bureau initiatives.

Among the topics addressed at the symposia were:

- Math and Science Preparation for Young Women
- Impact of Sex Role Socialization on Careers for Women
- Dislocated Women Workers
- Women and High Technology Employment
- Public Policy Issues Affecting Older Women
- Future Explorations for Working Women

Part V. Initiatives of Nongovernmental Organizations

Part 5. INITIATIVES OF NONGOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS

INTRODUCTION

American women who are working or seeking to enter the labor force are served by a vast array of nongovernmental organizations. While some groups focus on helping women to prepare for and obtain employment, others are geared toward helping women gain upward mobility in skills, level of job responsibilities, and earnings. Some organizations work to increase women's opportunities for work in nontraditional jobs, while others promote or provide employment-related support services such as child care. Some limit their scope to a particular issue or occupation or target group in preference to those groups whose tasks and priorities are defined largely by the needs identified. Still other organizations are advocacy groups that center their attention on information sharing and education to increase awareness of major concerns related to women's employment or economic welfare. There are individual organizations, coalitions and networks, task forces, caucuses, auxiliary groups, and community-based as well as regional and national groups.

Whatever the structure and focus of these nongovernmental organizations, the characteristics and numbers of their membership, or the female population they serve--and many serve other segments of society as well--they have a mutual objective to promote the economic and social welfare of women. Together they reflect the growing awareness in the United States of the need to assist women to overcome any barriers that prevent their participating more fully and productively in the labor force. Thus, these nongovernmental organizations contribute significantly toward fulfilling the goals of the National (and World) Plan of Action. Indeed, their activities have resulted in many achievements for women in the United States during the U.N. Decade for women.

Clearly it is impossible to summarize the activities of the countless numbers of organizations that are serving women at all levels of the national structure. Rather, this section merely provides examples to illustrate the scope of activities and services of those organizations working to improve women's employment opportunities and economic status.

Organization	Groups Served	Activities
Alpha Kappa Alpha Sorority	Black Women Poor Women Youth	Conducts seminars on job hunting and career development. Sponsors conferences to identify economic problems common to women. Developed programs to address the problems of illiteracy. Operates a Job Corps center.
American Association of University Women	Displaced Homemakers Working Women	Through its Families and Work Project, provides local forums for individuals and organizations concerned with family/work relationships. Has been an effective force in the creation of job training programs for displaced homemakers. Provides skills training and basic education for poor women in India. Strives to increase employment opportunities for educated women.
American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees	Women in Labor Unions	Established day care centers at the workplace. Pressured for pay equity studies. Pursues sex discrimination cases and charges for public employees.
American Nurses Association	Women in Nursing	Pursues sex discrimination and pay equity cases and charges for nurses. Promotes the concept of job sharing as a viable work option of health care workers.

Organization	Groups Served	Activities
American Red Cross	Teenagers	Sponsors leadership development conferences. Promotes career exploration through volunteerism.
Association of Flight Attendants	Flight Attendants	Achieved the removal of age, weight, and pregnancy restrictions.
Association of Junior Leagues	Reentry Women Displaced Homemakers	Provides job internships to women returning to the labor force. Developed a project to train people who care for children. Launched a "Learn to Read" program to combat illiteracy in adults.
Baltimore New Directions for Women	All Women	Provides a full range of career counseling and employment training services. Conducts an in-depth seminar program for women reentering the labor force. Through a job search program, served people experiencing special barriers to employment.
Camp Fire	Young women	Developed a before and after school care program for working parents. Created career education programs for high schools. Provides leadership training.

Organization	Groups Served	Activities
Catalyst	All Women	Maintains a national clearinghouse library on women and work. Provides career and educational counseling and programs. Helps companies identify and resolve problems related to women in the corporate sector. Helps companies locate qualified women for boards of directors.
Coal Employment Project	Women in Mining	Advocates training and employment for women in mining. Surveyed women miners to determine the effect of their work on their health.
Coalition of Labor Union Women	All Union Women	Through its Empowerment of Union Women project, a monitoring and resource program, assists women in achieving new union roles. Used an OSHA "New Directions" grant to develop research and educational and training materials on workplace hazards facing women such as stress and reproductive hazards. Conducts workshops and provides informational materials of interest to working women.

Organization	Groups Served	Activities
Delta Sigma Theta Sorority	Single Heads of Households Young Women Black Women	Sponsored 43 conferences in support of single female heads of households, nationwide, and is continuing with the program implementation phase. Operates a center to prepare adults to get a high school diploma or GED equivalency and move on to an institution of higher learning. Operates a home for underprivileged and socially maladjusted young women and provides job skill training.
Displaced Homemakers Network	Displaced Homemakers	Worked to get the inclusion of displaced homemakers as a significant group in need of service in the Job Training Partnership Act. Publishes information on services available to displaced homemakers. Published a training manual on entrepreneurial skills needed to operate a business.
Future Homemakers of America	Teenage Women	Assists young women in career planning. Operates a child care and vocational home economics center. Provides guidance, support, and leadership development.
Girls Clubs of America	Young Women	Developed career awareness programs in new technology. Created a program to teach parents to be effective career advisors. Published a report on programs in career awareness, employability skills, and employment training.

Organization	Groups Served	Activities
Girl Scouts of the U.S.A.	Young Women	Provides programs to help girls develop decisionmaking abilities and become leaders. Publishes a workbook designed to encourage girls to seriously investigate career options.
National Alliance Business	All Women Business Owners	Maintains a clearinghouse of materials of on employment, training, education, etc. Publishes a newsletter highlighting model programs for women.
National Council of La Raza	Hispanic Women	Serves as a network of Hispanic community-based organizations, and provides technical assistance to local training and employment programs to improve opportunities for Hispanics.
National Council of Negro Women	Minority Women Teenage Women Poor Women Rural Women	Established a Women's Center to help black and Hispanic women gain job knowledge and skills. Directs an employment and training program to serve teens, teen parents, and pregnant teens. Operated a program to provide pre-employment orientation, skills training, career development, and job placement services to rural women.

Organization	Groups Served	Activities
National Women's Law Center	All Women	Addresses policies on women's employment rights, emphasizing nontraditional employment and enforcement of anti-discrimination laws. Conducts training conferences on women's education rights, whether as students or employees of education institutions, and the problems of sex discrimination.
9 to 5, National Association of Working Women	Office Workers	Developed model State legislation relating to use of video display terminals (VDT's) and advocates State legislation or regulations to protect VDT operators from health hazards believed to be associated with VDT use.
Wider Opportunities for Women	All Women	Developed employment programs for women in skilled, well-paid nontraditional occupations. Works with employers and unions to develop a partnership for effective hiring and promoting of women. Serves as an advocate for women in the development of Federal employment policy. Established the Women's Work Force network to monitor the impact of public policy on women's employment, provide lines of communication among women's employment groups, and supply technical assistance.

Organization	Groups Served	Activities
Women in Community Service	Teenage Women	Recruits and screens young women for vocational training opportunities in the Job Corps. Provides supportive services before, during, and after Job Corps training. Assists those young women not eligible for the Job Corps to return to school or participate in other training programs.
Young Women's Christian Association	Young Women	Provides a comprehensive network of supportive services and activities for teenage mothers who dropped out of school or job training programs. Created a training program for nontraditional jobs for high school dropouts to improve employment potential. Provided a pre-employment program concentrating on career exploration, physical fitness training, and on-the-job exposure. Uses its purchasing power to further affirmative action in employment at hotels and conference centers with whom it contracts for meetings.

Organization	Groups Served	Activities
Zonta International	All Women	Conducting a survey to examine factors which have helped or hindered women employed in executive positions to determine elements of success. Provides an international scholarship program for women in aerospace-related science and engineering. Supports women's spinning, weaving, and pottery self-help projects in Kenya to assist them in raising income in support of themselves and their families. Funds the construction of wells in Sri Lanka to aid women who carry water and prepare food for their families.

Part VI. Future Directions

Part 6. FUTURE DIRECTIONS

OVERVIEW

While there is much uncertainty in projecting the future, it is a fact that the future is grounded largely in the present. In the case of the labor force and the participation of women, the future situation will reflect, to a large extent, the demographic characteristics of the existing population. The future experience of women in the labor force also depends greatly upon the economy, especially where they are in the process of shifting to nontraditional occupations and industries. Unforeseen business fluctuations may occur, having a negative effect on the demand for workers.

Policy changes are less certain than demographic changes, especially those of governments and trading partners outside the U.S. borders. Also, details of occupational employment are less certain than industrial trends. As mentioned periodically in the review of employment developments during the Decade for Women, impacts from sectors of the world economy have had increasingly greater effects on the Nation's employment situation.

By 1995 total U.S. employment is expected to be between 128.3 and 132.8 million, and women will account for about 47 percent of those workers, according to projections by the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS). Both jobs and production growth are expected to taper off during the latter part of the period, primarily in response to slower projected growth in both the population and labor force. (Projections of the labor force to 1995 are shown in Appendix table 18.)

All major sectors of the U.S. economy are expected to grow during the next decade, but manufacturing will continue to claim a smaller share of the growth, while the service-producing industries will claim the larger. The largest export industries are expected to include, among other items, computers, aircraft, electronic components, and motor vehicles. The fastest growing export industries also will include computers and communication-related products such as telephone and telegraph apparatus. The outlook, then, is for continued growth in industries involved with computer-based technologies and requiring workers with high levels of skills.

While the occupational outlook points to continued high growth in some of the traditional areas for women, such as clerical work, nursing, and teaching in kindergarten and elementary school, the impact of new technology will be felt throughout most industries and many occupations.

Increasing numbers of scientists, engineers, computer specialists, and technicians will be needed to provide the high degree of technical knowledge required in some industries and occupations. Not to be overlooked are professional and technical occupations in the medical field--those involving services in health care as well as research. The growing proportion of the elderly in the population will require more specialists in geriatrics and related areas.

While many of the computer-related occupations are "sex-neutral" in terms of having between 25 and 55 percent female workers, women also will move increasingly into these and other nontraditional jobs as they study more science, mathematics, and into technical subjects in high school, and as they pursue post-secondary education in fields such as engineering and business management. These expectations and other employment projections--as well as changes now occurring in the use of computer-based technologies like word processing, computer-aided design, and computer-aided medical diagnosis equipment--clearly point to the crucial need for training and retraining programs for workers, and perhaps signal new approaches by educational institutions.

Future changes in public policies very well may relate to issues surrounding the training and retraining of workers, health and safety factors connected to new office technology or new work environments, and equity in pay and retirement income programs, among other issues.

To provide future direction in the development of policy and in the formulation of programs to improve training and employment opportunities for women, the Women's Bureau initiated five research studies which are summarized in Part 3 of this report, "Research Activities of the Women's Bureau."

LABOR FORCE PROJECTIONS

According to BLS, the number of persons of prime working age, 25 to 54 years, in the labor force is expected to grow much faster through 1995 than the total labor force. The number of young workers will decline, however, with the entry of the sharply reduced post-baby boom generation. At the same time, the huge baby boom group of workers will be at their peak labor force participation levels. By 1995 the median ages of women and men will be nearly the same, at about 37 years, with minorities having lower median ages.

Projections of the labor force to 1995, as calculated by BLS, include estimates for low, middle, and high growth. The middle estimate anticipates that labor force participation of women will accelerate, then taper off by 1995. Still, nearly two-thirds of the labor force growth will be among women, no matter which of the three estimates is used. By the end of the next decade fully 60 percent of all working age women are expected to be in the labor force, including almost 80 percent of those ages 25 to 54. A smaller proportion of women ages 55 and over, however, may be in

the labor force than there are at present. The steadily closing gap between the participation rates of white women and black and other minority women will continue to close. Racial minorities other than blacks are expected to increase their proportion of the female labor force as they enter more fully into the economic activity of the Nation. By 1995 over a fifth of the minority women's labor force will be composed of racial minorities other than blacks.

Industrial Outlook

The services-producing sector is expected to provide more than three-fourths of all new jobs during the next decade. Women are expected to obtain the greatest share of their employment in this sector, just as they do today. BLS projects that the miscellaneous services sector will provide the most new jobs over the next decade, with about twice as many new jobs as will arise in manufacturing. By 1995 these industries, including medical care, business and professional services, and amusements and recreation will provide almost one-fourth of total employment. Today women generally are a larger component than men in the largest industry, miscellaneous business services, which includes personnel supply, business consultants, janitorial and protective services, and computer and data processing services. Women are still a minority of protective service workers and are not yet well represented at the higher levels in computer and data processing services.

Historically, women have formed a large component of the retail trade industry but a far less prominent component of wholesale trade. Projected growth is expected to expand faster in retail trade, especially in eating and drinking establishments.

On the other hand, women form substantial proportions of the work forces of some of the most rapidly declining industries, including those in nondurable manufacturing such as apparel and other textile products. The long-term declines in farm work and unskilled manufacturing work are expected to continue, raising implications for training and retraining of workers in these declining industries.

One particular industrial sector deserves special mention, that is, the high technology sector. There is no standard definition of this part of the economy based either on production or employment, but several estimates indicate that although it is not yet a very large part of the whole, it will have far-reaching effects on production and employment into the next century. According to BLS projections of high technology industries, employment will increase faster than the total employment for all industries. Most work will be in the manufacture of equipment and components.

Occupational Outlook

The latest BLS projections list the following 10 occupations as those expected to provide the largest job growth through 1995: building custodians, cashiers, secretaries, general clerks, salesclerks, registered nurses, waiters and waitresses, kindergarten and elementary school teachers, truckdrivers, and nursing aides and orderlies. With the exception of truckdrivers, each is among the leading occupations of women today. If current patterns do not change, women will still obtain a large proportion of those jobs available in the foreseeable future. Although traditional for women, relatively low paying, and often not requiring very high levels of education and training, even these jobs will be impacted by the introduction of computers into their work environments.

Projections by BLS also indicate that because of the high degree of technical knowledge that will be required in working with computers, professional and technical workers will continue to increase faster than total employment, and will account for a greater share of total employment by 1995. Service workers, with the exception of private household workers, also will grow faster than average. Managers, sales workers, and craft workers will increase at about average rates. The long-term declines will continue for operatives and laborers as the economy shifts away from manufacturing. Again, there are major implications for women, especially some of the racial minorities who have tended to concentrate in these declining occupations.

Clerical occupations, which have provided the largest source of jobs for women since the mid-1950's, are projected to grow at a much less rapid pace as the impact of computer-based word processing continues to modify demand for the traditional typist or file clerk. This change could have far-reaching negative implications for unwary women working in these occupations or expecting to enter the labor force through that route. Further discussion on the training needs of workers impacted by new technology is included under the topic "Training Needs."

EDUCATIONAL REQUIREMENTS

The labor force of the future will be even more highly educated than it is today, when one-fourth are college graduates and two-fifths of the college educated workers are women. Almost all workers in professional specialties had some college education when they entered employment. Professions that educated women are shifting into, such as engineering, law, and life and physical sciences, increasingly are requiring advanced degrees for status and promotions. These advanced educational requirements are different from the requirements of the professions where women traditionally have been employed such as teaching at the elementary and secondary levels and nursing, which require bachelor's degrees. Managerial and administrative occupations in which women have made some of the largest employment gains over the Decade now have employees with a

broad range of educational and other experiences, and according to the BLS report, "How Workers Get Their Training," released in early 1985, more than a third already had at least 4 years of college education. Prospects are that persons in those positions in the future also will be required to have advanced education as more technical expertise and specialized knowledge will be needed.

Some occupations that formerly did not require college degrees, such as police protection, increasingly will employ more highly educated workers, and many police officers now are taking courses mainly in community and junior colleges. In the past it was often the few women on the police force who were required to have a college degree at job entrance to do the social work connected to law enforcement, while the men at the patrol level were accepted with a high school education. The future public protection work force, however, will include women in all positions, and both women and men will be more highly educated.

In sales and some technical specialties, women workers generally do not have a college education and generally do not sell some of the more technical and "big ticket" items, whereas the men in these occupations often have studied engineering, business, or other technical subjects beyond high school. As women continue to move into the more nontraditional areas of sales, more education will be required of them. The BLS report also showed that some occupations in the personal service industries such as hotels and recreation services, where women are the majority of workers, are attracting increasing proportions of college graduates.

There are now more persons in the labor force who have had 1 year of college than there are those who have left school immediately upon graduation from high school. Many workers, however, end their education with high school, including most of the more than 30 percent of employed women who are in clerical and other office support occupations. With the spread of computer-based word processing and information technology, however, there is likely to be increased competition for the more challenging and creative positions. Those positions may require higher skills in language, computation, editing, and communication than normally can be obtained with education that ends with a high school diploma.

Another promising trend in education is the declining dropout rate. Data from the National Center for Education Statistics indicate that fewer students are dropping out of school before obtaining at least a high school diploma. The dropout rate for women declined from 17 percent in 1971 to 12.5 percent in 1981; for men the rate decreased from 16 to 13 percent over the 10-year period. Among black women the rate dropped from 25 percent in 1971 to 18 percent in 1981; black men's rate dropped from 27 percent to match black women's rate in 1981. This is a trend that deserves continued encouragment, as the prospects are that there will be few good job opportunities for high school dropouts in the future.

Workers of the 1990's will be expected to have studied the often termed "difficult" mathematics and science subjects in order to understand the highly technical training they will receive on the job. Employers have indicated that in the future they will expect improved proficiency in basic skills from entry level employees, including those who enter the labor force with only a high school education. With increased cooperation between employers and school systems, students already are beginning to take more difficult subjects. About 35 percent of the young women who were seniors in high schools in 1980 had completed 2 or 2 1/2 years of mathematics and 31 percent of the young men had done so. Similar proportions each had completed chemistry. On the other hand, only 28 percent of the female seniors had taken 3 or more years of mathematics, while almost 40 percent of the male seniors had done so. Only 6 percent of the young women and 10 percent of the young men had studied physics.

TRAINING NEEDS

Training needs of the future will be one of the most important issues in the coming years. Estimates are that between 50 and 80 percent of the present labor force must be retrained within the next few years--because of the many changes in the structure of industry brought on by the wide dissemination of new methods and equipment related to computers and other new technology, and because of the rapid changes in products and services influenced by the highly competitive trade environment. Furthermore, the structural changes include the internal labor markets and affect the promotion routes upward from entry level in firms that traditionally have allowed increasingly experienced and valuable workers to advance with responsibility and earnings. Especially at middle management, sales, and some technical levels, workers more and more are expected to enter already trained and educated, whereas formerly such workers largely had begun at lower levels right out of high school and moved up. These changes in former promotion routes also include the clerical management or supervisory slots mainly available to experienced women.

In the United States today it is estimated that more than 7 million workers already use computer-based video display terminals to do word and data processing. Some 400,000 word processing units were sold in the United States in 1984 alone. By 1990 the number of terminals in use is expected to reach at least 40 million. An international consulting firm predicts that by 1990 "between 40 and 50 percent of all American workers will be making daily use of electronic-terminal equipment." Women make up a disproportionate number of the clerical and other office workers who are vulnerable to the changes resulting from the new office technology. In addition, women rising through the ranks of supervisors, administrators, and managers will require training or retraining as the focus of computer-based office equipment shifts toward those workers whose jobs have not yet been greatly impacted by these new products. Women are now half of the employees in the electronics industry where rapid change is

expected to continue, implying the need for continued training or retraining of workers.

According to the BLS study on "How Workers Get Their Training," more than half of supervisors of clerical workers and other administrative support employees have obtained training to improve their skills. High proportions of administrative support workers whose jobs already involve contact with computers--such as reservation clerks, insurance adjusters and investigators, bank tellers, computer equipment operators, and payroll clerks--have received training to improve their skills. Surprisingly, however, only 28 percent of typists, secretaries, and stenographers indicated in the BLS study that they had received training to improve their skills. This portends continual retraining and upgrading of skills in the coming years for the 3.5 million women in those jobs--the very positions targeted for the rapid introduction of new equipment. The Women's Bureau has identified the needs of this labor force segment as critical for the coming decade and will be developing a new thrust based on research now in process on the impact of technological change, and on the impact of job dislocation, summarized in Part 3 on "Research Activities of the Women's Bureau."

In occupations where large numbers of more highly educated women are employed and some that have been targeted as nontraditional for women, such as administration and some professional specialties, more than 60 percent of those workers indicated that they have had additional training. Many of the positions in fields such as mathematical and computer sciences, public administration, health professions, protective service work, and educational and vocational counseling are being impacted daily by new technology and are also in the forefront of some of the research and development. These workers can be expected to continue to require training or retraining to maintain their jobs. The Women's Bureau has initiated a research study to gain more knowledge about how to facilitate career changes of women in professions, especially in traditional occupations. The effort is summarized in Part 3 on "Research Activities of the Women's Bureau."

Increasingly, education and training for labor force entry and for promotion will be the responsibility of educational institutions, and equitable access to these institutions could become a focal point for competing workers and potential workers.

Young Workers

Increasingly, young women and men who leave high school before obtaining a diploma as well as those who end their formal education at high school graduation have difficulty entering the world of work. Often, aside from not having a strong basic education, they lack job-seeking skills in addition to entry level job skills. Most have little knowledge of the variety of opportunities in the job market. Consequently, these young people experience a series of disappointments as

they attempt to enter the job market unprepared and inexperienced--they end up in very low skilled and low paying jobs or become unemployed.

The need for school-to-work training was identified early in the Decade, and the Women's Bureau and several nongovernmental organizations have developed effective approaches to overcoming barriers to the labor force entry of female youth. Descriptions of these programs are included in Part 4 in the section on Mechanisms of Change, under the topic "Youth Programs."

Older Workers

The difficulties of older women workers and potential workers who require training and retraining vary with their labor market experiences. The National Commission for Employment Policy, in its report "Older Worker Employment Comes of Age: Practice and Potential," issued in early 1985, summarized some of the training needs of older workers as follows:

Classification	Training Needs
Workers at or near retirement	Rarely offered by employers; adult education only public sector program for those employed.
Displaced workers	Needed, but should build on existing expertise.
Disadvantaged workers	Needed, but not often taken advantage of; rarely offered by employers.
Retirees seeking to reenter the labor force	Few programs available.

In addition to the issues identified above, older women workers who are at or near retirement age often have been in the same low skill jobs for some time and they have no newly acquired saleable skills. Many of the women who become displaced workers simply withdraw from the labor force. Disadvantaged older women workers include displaced homemakers and former welfare recipients who require training and counseling for special needs arising from their long-term absence from the world of work. In addition, disadvantaged older women workers often have remedial education needs as well as new skills training; for example, some minority women whose education ended with little more than elementary schooling; or the newly arrived women immigrants, refugees, and entrants who especially need language skills. Finally, since part of the growth of the female labor force in the coming decade will be attributed to women who previously stayed home, most of whom are older, many will have training needs related to the new technology that will be used in the workplace.

Questions about who will pay for the massive training and retraining already foreseen are being debated. Suggested solutions range from use of part of workers' IRA's to tax write-offs, similar to those for research and development, for employers who invest heavily in the training and retraining of their employees. Increasingly, there is coordination between employers and schools, both secondary and higher educational institutions. It can be foreseen already that the needs for retooling industries as well as the needs for retraining workers will continue into the next century.

The Women's Bureau has identified some of the training components that help women overcome the barriers to their full participation in the labor force. Descriptions of programs that have utilized specific processes or tested new approaches to training are summarized in Part 4 on "Program Components and Mechanisms Used by the Women's Bureau To Improve Employment Opportunities."

POLICY OUTLOOK

The outlook for policy development is for further fine-tuning of employment-related laws that significantly affect women. Review and reassessment of affirmative action plans to achieve equitable means of removing systemic barriers to employment opportunity are expected to continue. Development of criteria for identifying unlawful discrimination in job classification and wage-setting practices will be sought.

Employment and training policies and programs for youth who have not attained basic skills and for longtime homemakers entering or reentering the labor force will be even more important with the skill requirements of new jobs.

It is expected that policymakers will continue efforts to make retirement income more accessible to women, assessing proposals for quicker vesting and portability in private pension plans and equitable balancing of social security benefits for one-earner and dual-earner families.

Safety and health issues will continue to arise from new office technology and from new data about toxic substances in work environments.

With the continued increase of single working parents and of families where both wife and husband are in the labor force, care for children and dependent adults and parental leave arrangements will become ever more crucial to women and men. Local, State, and Federal policymakers will be looking at the extent to which child care and time for family responsibilities are to be employee benefits (with or without tax incentives for the employer), or are the responsibility of each individual or of the community.

With the tendency toward a nearly equal distribution of women and men in many occupations in the future, their policy goals for employment and benefits are more likely to coincide. Nevertheless the issues named are complex and do not lend themselves to easy solutions. In formulating policies, legislators must often balance equities, not simply between labor and management, but between different groups of employees, retirees, and consumers as well. Further, a proposal must be viewed for its impact on the health of the economy and the growth of jobs in a world society as well as on the worklife and benefits of the employees immediately concerned.

The achievements of the Decade are significant. The tasks ahead remain challenging.

Appendixes

TABLUAR DATA RELATED TO WOMEN'S LABOR FORCE ACTIVITIES

Table	Title
1	Employment Status of the Civilian Noninstitutional Population, 1975 to 1984.
2	Employment by Industry, 1975 and 1984.
3	Occupational Distribution of Employed Women, 1975 and 1984.
4	20 Leading Occupations of Employed Women--1976, 1980, and 1984.
5	Women as a Percent of Total Employed by Selected Occupations, 1980 and 1984.
6	Comparison of Median Earnings of Year-Round Full-Time Workers, 1975-1983.
7	Median Weekly Earnings of Full-Time Wage and Salary Workers, Annual Average 1984.
8	Employment Status of Women, Age 16 and Over, by Race, 1975 and 1984.
9	Employment Status of Hispanic Women, Age 16 and Over, 1976 and 1984.
10	Civilian Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age Group, 1975 and 1984.
11	Labor Force Status of Women, Age 25 to 64, by Years of School Completed, March 1984.
12	Total Enrollment in Institutions of Higher Education in Selected Major Fields of Study, by Sex, Fall 1976 and 1980.
13	Bachelor's, Master's, and Doctor's Degrees Conferred by Institutions of Higher Education and Selected Fields of Study, 1983-84.

Table	Title
14	Labor Force Participation Rates of Women Age 16 and Over, by Marital Status and Presence and Age of Children, 1975 and 1984.
15	Earners in Families, by Relationship, 1975, 1980, and 1984.
16	Labor Force Status of Women Who Maintain Families, 1975 and 1984.
17	Selected Characteristics of Women Maintaining Families, 1975 and 1983.
18	Civilian Labor Force, by Sex, Age, and Race, 1975 and 1984 and Middle Growth Projection to 1995.

TABLE 1

EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF THE CIVILIAN NONINSTITUTIONAL POPULATION
1975 TO 1984
(Numbers in Thousands)

Year	Civilian Noninstitutional Population	Civilian Labor Force	Labor Force as Percent of Population	Employed	Unemployed	Unemployment Rate
Total, age 16 and over						
1984	176,383	113,544	64.4	105,005	8,539	7.5
1983	174,215	111,550	64.0	100,834	10,717	9.6
1982	172,271	110,204	64.0	99,526	10,678	9.7
1981	170,130	108,670	63.9	100,397	8,273	7.6
1980	167,745	106,940	63.8	99,303	7,637	7.1
1979	164,863	104,962	63.7	98,824	6,137	5.8
1978	161,910	102,251	63.2	96,048	6,202	6.1
1977	159,033	99,009	62.3	92,017	6,991	7.1
1976	156,150	96,158	61.6	88,752	7,406	7.7
1975	153,153	93,775	61.2	85,846	7,929	8.5
Women, age 16 and over						
1984	92,778	49,709	53.6	45,915	3,794	7.6
1983	91,684	48,503	52.9	44,047	4,457	9.2
1982	90,748	47,755	52.6	43,256	4,499	9.4
1981	89,618	46,696	52.1	43,000	3,696	7.9
1980	88,348	45,487	51.5	42,117	3,370	7.4
1979	86,843	44,235	50.9	41,217	3,018	6.8
1978	85,334	42,631	50.0	39,569	3,061	7.2
1977	83,840	40,613	48.4	37,289	3,324	8.2
1976	82,390	38,983	47.3	35,615	3,369	8.6
1975	80,860	37,475	46.3	33,989	3,486	9.3

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 2

EMPLOYMENT BY INDUSTRY, 1975 AND 1984
(Numbers in Thousands)

Industry	1984 Total Employed	1984 Women as Percent of Total	1975 Total Employed	1975 Women as Percent of Total
Total, 16 years and over	105,005	43.7	85,846	39.6
Agriculture	3,321	19.7	3,408	17.1
Mining	957	17.2	752	9.6
Construction	6,665	8.4	5,093	6.2
Manufacturing	20,995	32.6	19,457	28.6
Durable Goods	12,606	26.6	11,539	21.7
Nondurable Goods	8,389	41.5	7,918	38.7
Transportation & Public Utilities	7,358	25.8	5,692	21.9
Trade	21,979	47.4	17,713	43.5
Wholesale	4,212	27.4	3,382	22.8
Retail	17,767	52.2	14,331	48.4
Finance, Insurance & Real Estate	6,750	57.7	4,735	51.4
Banking	1,862	70.0	1,293	65.3
Credit Agencies	654	68.5	418	59.0
Security, Commodity, & Investment Companies	516	39.2	240	35.2
Insurance	2,018	57.0	1,592	49.5
Real Estate	1,702	46.4	1,191	39.3
Services	32,214	60.7	24,174	60.3
Private Households	1,243	85.5	1,392	88.0
Business & Repair	5,458	36.0	2,866	29.2
Personal Services	2,931	67.4	2,380	65.2
Entertainment & Recreation	1,260	38.6	865	34.3
Professional & Related	21,174	66.4	16,573	64.2
Forestry & Fisheries	148	15.5	97	14.7
Public Administration	4,766	40.2	4,824	31.0

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 3

OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYED WOMEN, 1975 AND 1984

Occupation	1984		1975	
	Percent of All Workers	Percent of All Female Workers	Percent of All Workers	Percent of All Female Workers
Total	43.7	100.0	39.6	100.0
Managerial and Professional Specialty	41.6	22.5	34.8	18.4
Executive, Administrative, & Managerial	33.6	8.5	21.9	5.2
Professional Specialty	48.5	14.0	45.3	13.2
Technical, Sales, & Administrative Support	64.4	45.6	61.3	45.6
Technicians and Related Support	48.1	3.3	41.5	2.7
Sales Occupations	47.9	13.1	41.9	11.3
Administrative Support, Including Clerical	79.9	29.1	77.2	31.6
Service Occupations	60.8	18.7	61.0	20.8
Private Household	96.2	2.1	97.5	3.4
Protective Service	12.9	0.5	7.1	0.3
Other Service Occupations	64.8	16.2	64.4	17.1
Precision Production, Craft, & Repair	8.5	2.4	5.5	1.7
Operators, Fabricators, & Laborers	26.0	9.6	24.4	12.0
Machine Operators, Assemblers, & Inspectors	41.1	7.1	38.7	9.2
Transportation & Material Moving	8.3	0.8	4.8	0.6
Handlers, Equipment Cleaners, Helpers, & Laborers	16.6	1.6	16.9	2.2
Farming, Forestry, & Fishing	15.6	1.2	14.0	1.6

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 4

20 LEADING OCCUPATIONS OF EMPLOYED WOMEN--1976, 1980, AND 1984

	1976	1980	1984
1.	Secretaries	Secretaries	Secretaries
2.	Sales Clerks, Retail Trade	Bookkeepers, Accounting and Auditing Clerks	Cashiers
3.	Bookkeepers, Accounting and Auditing Clerks	Sales Clerks, Retail Trade	Bookkeepers, Accounting and Auditing Clerks
4.	Elementary School Teachers	Cashiers	Registered Nurses
5.	Waiters	Waiters	Waiters
6.	Cashiers	Registered Nurses	Elementary School Teachers
7.	Private Household Workers	Elementary School Teachers	Nursing Aides, Orderlies, and Attendants
8.	Registered Nurses	Private Household Workers	Sales Workers; Other Retail Commodities
9.	Typists	Typists	Sales Supervisors and Proprietors
10.	Nursing Aides, Orderlies and Attendants	Nursing Aides, Orderlies and Attendants	Typists
11.	Sewers and Stitchers	Sewers and Stitchers	Textile Sewing Machine Operators
12.	Cooks, Including Short Order	Cooks, Including Short Order	Cooks, Excluding Short Order
13.	Secondary School Teachers	Secondary School Teachers	Receptionists
14.	Assemblers	Assemblers	Child Care Workers, Except Private Household
15.	Receptionists	Receptionists	Secondary School Teachers
16.	Hairdressers and Cosmetologists	Building Interior Cleaners not elsewhere classified	Hairdressers and Cosmetologists
17.	Building Interior Cleaners, not elsewhere classified	Hairdressers and Cosmetologists	Janitors and Cleaners
18.	Packers and Wrappers, Except Meat and Produce	Bank Tellers	General Office Clerks
19.	Food Counter and Fountain Workers	Cleaners and Servants, Private Household	Cleaners and Servants, Private Household
20.	Checkers, Examiners, and Inspectors, Manufacturing	Child Care Workers, Private Household	Accountants and Auditors

Source: Compiled by the Women's Bureau from data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 5

WOMEN AS A PERCENT OF TOTAL EMPLOYED BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONS
1980 AND 1984

Occupation	1984	1980
Purchasing Managers	22.8	21.1
Accountants & Auditors	40.9	37.9
Buyers, Wholesale & Retail Trade, except Farm Products	42.2	44.2
Architects	10.8	8.2
Engineers	6.2	4.6
Mathematical & Computer Scientists	30.7	26.0
Registered Nurses	96.0	95.9
Physicians	16.0	13.3
Counselors, Education & Vocational	54.2	54.3
Economists	39.6	29.3
Lawyers	16.1	13.6
Engineering & Related Technicians & Technologists	18.3	16.4
Airplane Pilots & Navigators	2.1	1.4
Computer Programmers	35.4	31.1
Securities & Financial Services Sales	23.9	18.5
Sales Workers, Apparel	83.0	81.8
Administrative Support Supervisors	52.9	47.1
Computer Equipment Operators	64.7	59.0
Financial Records Processing	90.0	88.4
Police & Detectives	10.8	7.8
Bartenders	48.9	43.8
Cleaning & Building Service Supervisors	38.0	28.0
Electrical & Electronic Equipment Repairers	5.8	7.7
Precision Production Occupations	22.9	17.8
Optical Goods Workers	49.6	40.3
Electrical & Electronic Equipment Assemblers	73.3	76.0
Lathe & Turning Machine Operators	12.9	8.6
Typesetters & Compositors	67.4	55.7
Shoe Machine Operators	74.5	74.0
Welders & Cutters	4.7	5.5
Assemblers	43.8	49.7
Production Testers	30.7	32.2
Industrial Truck & Tractor Equipment Operators	5.3	4.6
Laborers, except Construction	18.2	19.3

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, and U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 6

COMPARISON OF MEDIAN EARNINGS OF YEAR-ROUND FULL-TIME WORKERS
1975-1983

Year	Median Earnings		Earnings Gap in Current Dollars	Women's Earnings as a Percent of Men's	Percent Men's Earnings Exceeded Women's	Earnings Gap in Constant 1967 Dollars
	Women	Men				
1983	$13,915	$21,881	$7,966	63.6	57.2	$2,670
1982	13,014	21,077	8,063	61.7	62.0	2,789
1981	12,001	20,260	8,259	59.2	68.8	3,032
1980	11,197	18,612	7,415	60.2	66.2	3,004
1979	10,151	17,014	6,863	59.7	67.6	3,157
1978	9,350	15,730	6,380	59.4	68.2	3,267
1977	8,618	14,626	6,008	58.9	69.7	3,310
1976	8,099	13,455	5,356	60.2	66.1	3,141
1975	7,504	12,758	5,254	58.8	70.0	3,259

Notes: Data are for persons 15 years and over beginning with 1979. Prior to 1979, data are for persons 14 and over. Data reflect wage and salary income and earnings from self-employment.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 7

MEDIAN WEEKLY EARNINGS OF FULL-TIME WAGE AND SALARY WORKERS
ANNUAL AVERAGE 1984

Occupation	Men	Women	Ratio Female/ Male	Percent Female Workers
Total	$400	$259	64.8	43.7
Managerial and Professional Specialty	553	378	68.4	41.6
Executive, Administrative, & Managerial	568	358	63.0	33.6
Professional Specialty	534	394	73.8	48.5
Technical, Sales, & Administrative Support	404	256	63.4	64.4
Technicians and Related Support	451	312	69.2	48.1
Sales Occupations	403	212	52.6	47.9
Administrative Support, Including Clerical	380	257	67.6	79.9
Service Occupations	259	180	69.5	60.8
Private Household	208	130	62.5	96.2
Protective Service	378	288	76.2	12.9
Other Service Occupations	224	182	81.3	64.8
Precision Production, Craft, & Repair	401	254	63.3	8.5
Operators, Fabricators, & Laborers	321	209	65.1	26.0
Machine Operators, Assemblers, & Inspectors	331	208	62.8	41.1
Transportation & Material Moving	354	253	71.5	8.3
Handlers, Equipment Cleaners, Helpers, & Laborers	258	207	80.2	16.6
Farming, Forestry, & Fishing	205	177	86.3	15.6

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 8

EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF WOMEN, AGE 16 AND OVER, BY RACE, 1975 AND 1984
(Numbers in Thousands)

Employment Status	1984	1975	Percent Change
All Women			
Civilian Noninstitutional Population	92,778	80,860	14.7
Civilian Labor Force	49,709	37,475	32.6
Percent of Population	53.6	46.3	----
Employed	45,915	33,989	35.1
Unemployed	3,794	3,486	8.8
Unemployment Rate	7.6	9.3	----
White Women			
Civilian Noninstitutional Population	79,624	70,810	12.4
Civilian Labor Force	42,431	32,508	30.5
Percent of Population	53.3	45.9	----
Employed	39,659	29,714	33.5
Unemployed	2,772	2,794	-0.8
Unemployment Rate	6.5	8.6	----
Black and Other Minority Women			
Civilian Noninstitutional Population	13,154	10,052	30.9
Civilian Labor Force	7,279	4,967	46.5
Percent of Population	55.3	49.4	----
Employed	6,256	4,275	46.3
Unemployed	1,022	692	47.7
Unemployment Rate	14.0	13.9	----
Black Women			
Civilian Noninstitutional Population	10,694	8,691	23.0
Civilian Labor Force	5,907	4,247	39.1
Percent of Population	55.2	48.9	----
Employed	4,995	3,618	38.1
Unemployed	911	629	44.8
Unemployment Rate	15.4	14.8	----

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 9

EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF HISPANIC WOMEN, AGE 16 AND OVER, 1976 AND 1984
(Numbers in Thousands)

Employment Status	1984	1976	Percent Change
All Women			
Civilian Noninstitutional Population	92,778	82,390	12.6
Civilian Labor Force	49,709	38,983	27.5
Percent of Population	53.6	47.3	----
Employed	45,915	35,615	28.9
Unemployed	3,794	3,369	12.6
Unemployment Rate	7.6	8.6	----
All Hispanic Women			
Civilian Noninstitutional Population	5,222	3,669	42.3
Civilian Labor Force	2,606	1,625	60.4
Percent of Population	49.9	44.3	----
Employed	2,320	1,417	63.7
Unemployed	286	207	38.2
Unemployment Rate	11.0	12.7	----
Mexican-Origin Women			
Civilian Noninstitutional Population	2,989	2,021	47.9
Civilian Labor Force	1,517	911	66.5
Percent of Population	50.8	45.1	----
Employed	1,351	790	71.0
Unemployed	166	122	36.1
Unemployment Rate	10.9	13.3	----
Puerto Rican-Origin Women			
Civilian Noninstitutional Population	785	578	35.8
Civilian Labor Force	296	183	61.7
Percent of Population	37.7	31.6	----
Employed	252	154	63.6
Unemployed	43	29	48.3
Unemployment Rate	14.7	15.9	----
Cuban-Origin Women			
Civilian Noninstitutional Population	387	331	16.9
Civilian Labor Force	215	166	29.5
Percent of Population	55.6	50.2	----
Employed	201	149	34.9
Unemployed	14	17	-17.6
Unemployment Rate	6.7	10.0	----

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 10

CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES, BY AGE GROUP, 1975 AND 1984

	Total Women		White Women		Black and Other Minority Women		Total Men	
Age Group	1984	1975	1984	1975	1984	1975	1984	1975
16 years and over	53.6	46.3	53.3	45.9	55.3	49.4	76.4	77.9
16-19 years	51.8	49.1	55.4	51.5	35.5	35.6	56.0	59.1
20-24 years	70.4	64.1	72.5	65.4	60.5	56.3	85.0	84.6
25-29 years	70.4	57.0	70.8	56.0	68.4	63.6	93.6	94.5
30-34 years	69.1	51.7	68.8	50.6	70.6	58.8	95.1	96.3
35-39 years	70.2	54.9	69.5	53.7	74.0	62.7	95.6	96.2
40-44 years	70.1	56.8	69.7	56.2	72.3	60.7	95.1	95.2
45-49 years	66.2	55.9	66.1	55.4	67.3	59.9	93.3	94.1
50-54 years	59.4	53.3	59.3	53.3	60.0	53.4	88.9	90.1
55-59 years	49.8	47.9	49.4	47.5	53.0	52.1	80.2	84.4
60-64 years	33.4	33.3	32.9	33.2	37.4	34.6	56.1	65.7
65 and over	7.5	8.2	7.5	8.0	8.2	10.5	16.3	21.7

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 11

LABOR FORCE STATUS OF WOMEN, AGE 25 TO 64, BY YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED
MARCH 1984
(Numbers in Thousands)

Labor Force Status and Years of School Completed		Total	Percent of Total	Women	Percent of Women
Civilian Noninstitutional Population		113,893	100.0	58,901	100.0
Elementary:	8 years or less	10,618	9.3	5,059	8.6
High school:	1 to 3 years	13,197	11.6	7,068	12.0
	4 years only	46,209	40.6	26,310	44.7
College:	1 to 3 years	19,636	17.2	10,100	17.1
	4 years or more	24,232	21.3	10,368	17.6
Civilian Labor Force		86,001	100.0	37,234	100.0
Elementary:	8 years or less	5,818	6.8	1,917	5.1
High school:	1 to 3 years	8,545	9.9	3,472	9.3
	4 years only	34,603	40.2	16,709	44.9
College:	1 to 3 years	15,812	18.4	7,050	18.9
	4 years or more	21,223	24.7	8,086	21.7
Labor Force Participation Rate		75.5		63.2	
Elementary:	8 years or less	54.8		37.9	
High school:	1 to 3 years	64.7		49.1	
	4 years only	74.9		63.5	
College:	1 to 3 years	80.5		69.8	
	4 years or more	87.6		78.0	
Employed		80,365	100.0	34,953	100.0
Elementary:	8 years or less	5,144	6.4	1,691	4.8
High school:	1 to 3 years	7,488	9.3	3,070	8.8
	4 years only	32,097	39.9	15,646	44.8
College:	1 to 3 years	14,980	18.6	6,678	19.1
	4 years or more	20,655	25.7	7,868	22.5
Unemployed		5,635	100.0	2,280	100.0
Elementary:	8 years or less	675	12.0	226	9.9
High school:	1 to 3 years	1,056	18.7	401	17.6
	4 years only	2,505	44.5	1,061	46.5
College:	1 to 3 years	831	14.7	372	16.3
	4 years or more	568	10.1	218	9.6
Unemployment Rate		6.6		6.1	
Elementary:	8 years or less	11.6		11.8	
High school:	1 to 3 years	12.4		11.5	
	4 years only	7.2		6.3	
College:	1 to 3 years	5.3		5.3	
	4 years or more	2.7		2.7	

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 12

TOTAL ENROLLMENT IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN SELECTED MAJOR FIELDS OF STUDY, BY SEX, FALL 1976 AND 1980

Selected Major Field of Study	1976			1980		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
Total:						
Number	11,012,137	5,810,828	5,201,309	12,096,895	5,874,374	6,222,521
Percent	100.0	52.8	47.2	100.0	48.6	51.4
Agriculture and Natural Resources:						
Number	155,782	116,186	39,596	143,902	98,041	45,861
Percent	100.0	74.6	25.4	100.0	68.1	31.9
Architecture and Environmental Design:						
Number	68,796	52,845	15,951	74,611	51,884	22,727
Percent	100.0	76.8	23.2	100.0	69.5	30.5
Biological Sciences:						
Number	318,042	189,808	128,234	270,419	142,636	127,783
Percent	100.0	59.7	40.3	100.0	52.7	47.3
Business and Management:						
Number	1,281,788	860,134	421,654	1,661,705	919,357	742,348
Percent	100.0	67.1	32.9	100.0	55.3	44.7
Dentistry:						
Number	20,272	18,049	2,223	22,668	18,812	3,856
Percent	100.0	89.0	11.0	100.0	83.0	17.0
Engineering:						
Number	451,743	417,200	34,543	616,234	538,820	77,414
Percent	100.0	92.4	7.6	100.0	87.4	12.6
Law:						
Number	119,581	88,679	30,902	118,993	78,569	40,424
Percent	100.0	74.2	25.8	100.0	66.0	34.0
Medicine:						
Number	58,085	45,145	12,940	74,132	55,060	19,072
Percent	100.0	77.7	22.3	100.0	74.3	25.7
Physical Sciences:						
Number	164,342	127,393	36,949	173,356	125,591	47,765
Percent	100.0	77.5	22.5	100.0	72.4	27.6
Veterinary Medicine:						
Number	6,126	4,425	1,701	8,164	4,980	3,184
Percent	100.0	72.2	27.8	100.0	61.0	39.0
All Other:						
Number	8,367,580	3,890,964	4,476,616	8,932,711	3,840,624	5,092,087
Percent	100.0	46.5	53.5	100.0	43.0	57.0

Source: Digest of Education Statistics, 1983-84, National Center for Education Statistics.

TABLE 13

BACHELOR'S, MASTER'S, AND DOCTOR'S DEGREES CONFERRED
BY INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SELECTED FIELDS OF STUDY
1983-84

Field of Study	Bachelor's Degrees		Master's Degrees		Doctor's Degrees	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Agriculture and Natural Resources	6,732	15,154	942	3,061	127	940
Architecture and Environmental Design	2,655	6,800	919	2,234	20	73
Area Studies	1,554	1,031	383	359	57	100
Biological Sciences	19,067	24,149	2,324	3,654	1,052	2,666
Business and Management	73,806	127,070	14,513	43,505	125	720
Communications	17,103	14,179	1,657	1,448	75	107
Computer and Information Sciences	4,919	10,202	971	3,247	25	227
Education	81,196	27,069	70,301	28,080	3,736	4,164
Engineering	7,699	67,301	13,622	15,347	104	2,457
Fine and Applied Arts	25,681	14,798	4,573	4,056	258	396
Foreign Languages	7,799	2,520	1,410	694	314	274
Health Professions	53,130	10,519	12,199	4,316	367	475
Home Economics	17,454	916	2,318	252	167	78
Law	388	388	326	1,506	4	56
Letters	23,921	16,107	5,072	3,229	780	1,010
Library Science	353	22	4,018	841	40	31
Mathematics	4,736	6,342	875	1,692	114	614
Physical Sciences	55,888	18,064	1,084	4,200	2,765	376
Psychology	26,538	14,295	4,640	3,358	1,274	1,681
Public Affairs and Services	21,045	15,266	11,117	8,957	173	260
Social Sciences	44,491	15,156	4,475	7,442	847	2,272
Theology	1,483	4,358	1,419	2,801	101	1,175

Source: Digest of Education Statistics, 1983-84, National Center for Education Statistics.

TABLE 14

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES OF WOMEN AGE 16 AND OVER, BY MARITAL STATUS AND PRESENCE AND AGE OF CHILDREN, 1975 AND 1984

Marital Status and Presence and Age of Children	1984	1975
Total Women	53.2	45.6
No children under 18 years old	49.3	45.1
With children under 18 years old	60.5	47.3
Children 6 to 17 years old, none younger	68.2	54.8
Children under 6 years old	52.1	43.9
Children under 3 years old	47.4	34.1
Never Married Women	63.3	56.8
No children under 18 years old	64.8	57.5
With children under 18 years old	50.8	41.7
Children 6 to 17 years old, none younger	70.2	61.1
Children under 6 years old	43.8	36.3
Children under 3 years old	40.1	30.5
Married Women, Husband Present	52.8	44.4
No children under 18 years old	47.1	43.9
With children under 18 years old	58.8	44.8
Children 6 to 17 years old, none younger	65.4	52.3
Children under 6 years old	51.8	36.6
Children under 3 years old	48.3	32.5
Married Women, Husband Absent	61.1	55.2
No children under 18 years old	59.3	56.9
With children under 18 years old	62.6	53.9
Children 6 to 17 years old, none younger	70.2	59.1
Children under 6 years old	54.0	49.4
Children under 3 years old	48.5	46.0
Widowed Women	20.4	23.9
No children under 18 years old	18.3	21.5
With children under 18 years old	59.0	51.2
Children 6 to 17 years old, none younger	60.4	53.8
Children under 6 years old	51.4	36.1
Children under 3 years old	*	*
Divorced Women	74.3	72.1
No children under 18 years old	70.6	69.7
With children under 18 years old	79.3	74.8
Children 6 to 17 years old, none younger	84.1	80.1
Children under 6 years old	67.9	65.8
Children under 3 years old	55.5	61.1

* Data not shown where base is less than 75,000.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 15

EARNERS IN FAMILIES, BY RELATIONSHIP
1975, 1980, AND 1984
(Numbers in Thousands)

Family Type	1984	1980	1975
Married-Couple Families			
Total	50,143	49,316	47,878
No Earners	6,579	5,903	4,943
One Earner	13,680	13,900	16,217
Husband	11,094	11,621	14,343
Wife	1,944	1,707	1,394
Other Family Member	642	573	481
Two Earners	23,061	22,446	20,239
Husband and Wife	20,387	19,742	17,204
Husband and Other Family Member	2,098	2,285	2,652
Husband Is not an Earner	576	419	383
Three or More Earners	6,823	7,067	6,478
Husband and Wife	5,741	5,815	5,134
Husband an Earner, not Wife	884	1,095	1,209
Husband Is not an Earner	198	157	137
Other Families			
Maintained by Women*	10,265	9,416	7,587
No Earners	2,749	2,216	2,007
One Earner	4,788	4,612	3,597
Householder	3,745	3,620	2,713
Other Family Member	1,043	992	883
Two or more earners	2,729	2,589	1,984
Householder and Other Family Member	2,459	2,269	1,732
Householder Is not an Earner	270	320	250
Maintained by Men*	2,093	1,969	1,460
No Earners	275	244	176
One Earner	980	891	696
Householder	808	726	522
Other Family Member	172	165	174
Two or more Earners	838	835	588
Householder and Other Family Member	797	792	550
Householder Is not an Earner	41	43	38

* Families maintained by widowed, divorced, separated, or single persons.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 16

LABOR FORCE STATUS OF WOMEN WHO MAINTAIN FAMILIES, 1975 AND 1984
(Numbers in Thousands)

Labor Force Status	1984	1975	Percent Change 1975-1984
Civilian Noninstitutional Population	10,265	7,326	40.1
Civilian Labor Force	6,253	3,987	56.8
Percent of Population	60.9	54.4	----
Employed	5,546	3584	54.7
Unemployed	707	403	75.4
Unemployment Rate	11.3	10.1	----
Not in the Labor Force	4,012	3,339	20.2

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 17

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF WOMEN MAINTAINING FAMILIES
1975 AND 1983
(Numbers in Thousands)

Characteristics	Civilian Noninstitutional Population		Labor Force Participation Rate	
	1983	1975	1983	1975
Total Women Maintaining Families	9,828	7,326	59.6	54.4
Never Married	1,823	932	55.8	53.6
Separated	1,831	1,707	62.3	55.0
Widowed	2,559	2,539	34.3	37.8
Divorced	3,615	2,139	78.2	73.9
Median Age	41.1	43.5	----	----
With No Children Under Age 18	3,788	2,861	47.9	45.7
With Children				
Under Age 18	6,040	4,456	67.0	60.0
Ages 6 to 17 only	3,746	2,661	74.2	66.3
Under Age 6	2,294	1,795	55.2	50.6
White	6,783	5,254	60.5	55.7
Black	2,808	1,967	57.1	51.2
Hispanic	800	471	49.0	43.5

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 18

CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE, BY SEX, AGE, AND RACE
1975 AND 1984 AND MIDDLE GROWTH PROJECTION TO 1995

Labor Group	Labor Force (In Thousands)			Participation Rate		
	1975	1984	1995	1975	1984	1995
Total, age 16 and over	93,775	113,544	131,387	61.2	64.4	67.8
Men	56,299	63,835	69,970	77.9	76.4	76.1
16 to 24	12,371	12,728	10,573	72.4	72.8	74.5
16 to 19	4,805	4,134	4,043	59.1	56.0	62.9
20 to 24	7,565	8,594	6,530	84.5	85.0	84.1
25 to 54	34,991	42,302	51,358	94.4	93.9	93.4
25 to 34	14,192	18,488	18,105	95.3	94.4	93.1
35 to 44	10,398	14,037	19,446	95.6	95.4	95.3
45 to 54	10,401	9,776	13,807	92.1	91.2	91.1
55 and over	8,938	8,805	8,039	49.3	41.8	35.3
55 to 64	7,023	7,050	6,311	75.6	68.5	64.5
65 and over	1,914	1,755	1,728	21.6	16.3	13.3
Women	37,475	49,709	61,417	46.3	53.6	60.3
16 to 24	10,250	11,261	10,557	57.2	62.8	71.6
16 to 19	4,065	3,810	3,761	49.1	51.8	58.2
20 to 24	6,185	7,451	6,796	64.1	70.4	82.0
25 to 54	21,860	32,360	44,852	55.1	68.2	78.7
25 to 34	8,673	14,234	16,300	54.9	69.8	81.7
35 to 44	6,506	10,896	17,427	55.8	70.1	82.8
45 to 54	6,683	7,230	11,125	54.6	62.9	69.5
55 and over	5,365	6,088	6,008	23.1	22.2	19.9
55 to 64	4,323	4,911	4,671	40.9	41.7	42.5
65 and over	1,042	1,177	1,337	8.2	7.5	7.0
White	82,831	98,492	112,393	61.5	64.6	68.1
Men	50,324	56,062	60,757	78.7	77.1	77.0
16 to 24	10,931	10,979	9,271	74.4	75.0	79.1
25 to 54	31,225	37,067	44,232	95.1	94.8	94.5
55 and over	8,167	8,016	7,254	49.7	42.2	35.6
Women	32,508	42,431	51,636	45.9	53.3	60.0
16 to 24	8,988	9,706	9,025	59.0	65.5	75.4
25 to 54	18,732	27,378	37,433	54.3	68.0	78.7
55 and over	4,788	5,346	5,178	22.7	21.8	19.5
Black and Other	10,942	15,052	18,994	59.6	62.6	65.7
Men	5,976	7,773	9,213	71.9	71.4	70.6
16 to 24	1,439	1,749	1,302	60.3	61.2	52.7
25 to 54	3,764	5,234	7,126	89.0	88.2	87.2
55 and over	771	790	785	45.5	37.9	32.6
Women	4,967	7,279	9,781	49.4	55.3	61.7
16 to 24	1,260	1,554	1,532	46.6	49.9	55.3
25 to 54	3,129	4,982	7,419	60.4	69.4	78.7
55 and over	577	743	830	26.6	26.0	22.8

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics

KEY PROVISIONS IN FEDERAL LEGISLATION AND REGULATIONS AFFECTING WOMEN DURING THE DECADE

1975 EMERGENCY COMPENSATION AND SPECIAL UNEMPLOYMENT ASSISTANCE EXTENSION ACT OF 1975
Legislation increasing eligibility for supplemental unemployment insurance assistance benefits for persons not otherwise covered by State unemployment insurance laws, such as persons employed in private household service.

DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE APPROPRIATION AUTHORIZATION ACT OF 1976
Legislation permitting women to apply for appointment to the Army, Navy, and Air Force Academies.

TAX REDUCTION ACT OF 1975
Legislation increasing the availability of income tax deductions for child and dependent care expenses.

SOCIAL SERVICES AMENDMENTS OF 1974
Legislation to permit garnishment of Federal wages and retirement benefits for purposes of child support and alimony.

1976 U.N. CONVENTION ON POLITICAL RIGHTS OF WOMEN AND INTER-AMERICAN CONVENTION ON GRANTING POLITICAL RIGHTS TO WOMEN
U.S. Senate consent to the ratification of the U.N. Convention on Political Rights of Women, pending since 1963, and the Inter-American Convention on Granting Political Rights to Women, pending since 1949.

UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION AMENDMENTS OF 1976
Unemployment insurance legislation providing that States could not deny benefits solely on the basis of pregnancy and requiring coverage of many private household workers.

EDUCATION AMENDMENTS OF 1976
Legislation authorizing Federal grants to extend, improve, and maintain programs of vocational education to overcome sex discrimination and sex stereotyping; providing for the funding of activities such as the training of counselors in the changing work patterns of women and ways of overcoming occupational sex stereotyping; and authorizing the funding of the development of instructional materials to eliminate sex stereotyping, vocational education for displaced homemakers, day care services, and provision of stipends and support services for women.

TAX REFORM ACT OF 1976
Legislation providing for individual retirement accounts for nonworking spouses of eligible workers; increasing the "marital deduction," enabling an individual to leave $250,000 to a surviving spouse free of estate taxes and to reduce gift tax rates on interspousal gifts; and changing the tax deduction for child care to a tax credit of 20 percent of the employment-related expenses for care of a child, eliminating the income limit, and extending coverage to married couples where one spouse works part-time or is a student and to separated or divorced parents with custody of a child or children.

1977 TAX REDUCTION AND SIMPLIFICATION ACT OF 1977
Legislation allowing tax deductions for expenses for use of any portion of a dwelling unit in trade or business providing day care services.

DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE APPROPRIATION AUTHORIZATION ACT, 1978
Legislation requiring the Secretary of Defense to submit to Congress a definition of the term "combat," together with recommendations on expanding job classifications in the military services to which women may be assigned.

CAREER EDUCATION INCENTIVE ACT
Legislation requiring every State desiring funds under the Career Education Incentive Act to have a staff member experienced in the problems of discrimination and stereotyping in career education on their State education agency staff.

SOCIAL SECURITY AMENDMENTS OF 1977
Legislation reducing from 20 to 10 years the length a marriage had to have lasted for a surviving spouse or a divorced wife to be eligible for benefits on her former husband's earnings record under the Social Security system; eliminating the 50 percent reduction in benefits to certain widows and widowers who remarry after age 60; extending the delayed retirement credit to widows and widowers; and requiring a Federal government study of gender-based distinctions in the Social Security program.

1978 PUBLIC LAW 95-317
Legislation allowing Federal civil service annuitants the right to elect within one year after remarriage whether such annuitant's new spouse should be entitled to a survivor's annuity.

COMPREHENSIVE EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING ACT AMENDMENTS OF 1978
Legislation reauthorizing Federal grants for employment and training programs serving economically disadvantaged individuals; required that services be provided to significant segments of the population with severe barriers to employment due to sex, age, race, and national origin; targeted specific groups with special needs for services, such as "displaced homemakers," welfare recipients, single parents, and women; addressed specifically the elimination of sex stereotyping in jobs, the need for upward mobility, the provision of supportive services such as day care, and the need for part-time and flexible work schedules.

PEACE CORPS ACT AMENDMENTS OF 1978
Legislation providing that the Peace Corps is to be administered so as to give "particular attention to those programs, projects, and activities which tend to integrate women into the national economies of developing countries."

FEDERAL EMPLOYEES FLEXIBLE AND COMPRESSED WORK SCHEDULES ACT
Legislation permitting Federal agencies to experiment with flexible and compressed work schedules.

UNIFORMED SERVICES SURVIVORS' BENEFITS AMENDMENTS
Legislation reinstating full survivor benefits to a military widow who remarries after age 60 and increasing benefits for certain survivors.

INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND FOOD ASSISTANCE ACT OF 1978
Legislation requiring that U.S. bilateral development assistance encourage and promote the participation of women in the national economies of developing countries and the improvement of women's status as an important means of promoting the total development effort.

EQUAL RIGHTS AMENDMENT
Legislation to extend the time for ratification of the Equal Rights Amendment by State legislatures.

REVENUE ACT OF 1978
Legislation permitting a taxpayer to claim a tax credit for wages paid to certain related individuals for child care.

PUBLIC LAW 95-366
Legislation authorizing the Federal government to pay annuities to ex-spouses of retired Federal employees covered by the Civil Service Retirement System, when such payment is made in compliance with terms of a court-approved decree of divorce, annulment, or legal separation.

DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE APPROPRIATION AUTHORIZATION ACT
Legislation permitting women to be assigned to permanent duty on U.S. Navy noncombat vessels and temporary duty aboard combat vessels.

FEDERAL EMPLOYEES PART-TIME CAREER EMPLOYMENT ACT OF 1978
Legislation requiring Federal agencies to set annual goals for establishing or converting positions for part-time career employment.

PREGNANCY DISCRIMINATION ACT OF 1978
Legislation requiring that women affected by pregnancy, childbirth or related medical conditions be treated the same for all employment-related purposes as non-pregnant persons who are similar in their ability or inability to work.

EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY IN APPRENTICESHIP AND TRAINING
Amendment of U.S. Department of Labor regulations concerning equal employment opportunity in apprenticeship and training to include specific provisions requiring affirmative action for women.

GOALS AND TIMETABLES FOR FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY
Department of Labor notice establishing goals and timetables for female and minority utilization for Federal government construction contractors and subcontractors.

1979 AFFIRMATIVE ACTION GUIDELINES
Federal guidelines on affirmative action clarifying the kinds of voluntary actions to improve employment opportunities for previously excluded groups that are appropriate under Federal law.

1980 PUBLIC LAW 96-391
Legislation requiring notification of the spouse if a Federal government employee elects not to provide survivor benefits.

SEXUAL HARASSMENT GUIDELINES
Guidelines re-affirming that sexual harassment is an unlawful employment practice, describing under what circumstances certain conduct constitutes sexual harassment, and describing employer responsibility.

FOREIGN SERVICE ACT
Legislation entitling a divorced spouse of a Foreign Service employee, married 10 years or more, to a pro rata share of the employee's retirement and survivor benefits, subject to court review, modification, or rejection, and requiring the joint election in writing of a member participant and a spouse (or former spouse married to the member 10 years or more) for the waiver or reduction of a survivor's annuity.

1981 EMPLOYMENT OF HOMEWORKERS IN CERTAIN INDUSTRIES
Regulations lifting restrictions on industrial homework in the knitted outerwear industry.

ECONOMIC RECOVERY TAX ACT OF 1981
Legislation that (1) increases to 30 percent (from 20 percent) the tax credit for child and dependent care expenses related to employment for taxpayers earning $10,000 per year or less, (2) increases the maximum amount of expenditures for child and dependent care for each of the taxpayer's first two dependents, (3) provides that qualified employer-provided child care benefits will not be included in an employee's gross income for tax purposes.

Legislation making all workers eligible for Individual Retirement Accounts (IRA's) regardless of eligibility for employer-sponsored pension plans, increasing the limit for a spousal IRA, deleting the previous requirement that contributions under a spousal IRA be equally divided, and allowing an individual a tax deduction for contributions made to a spousal IRA after divorce.

Legislation providing that nearly all transfers to a surviving spouse will be free from Federal estate and gift taxes.

1982 JOB TRAINING PARTNERSHIP ACT OF 1982
Legislation authorizing Federal grants to States for employment and training programs; replaced the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act; gave the private sector equal authority with their public partners over all aspects of the programs; provided for services to economically disadvantaged individuals and those with serious barriers to employment, such as Aid to Families with Dependent Children recipients, school dropouts, displaced homemakers, and teenage parents; required the development of programs to overcome sex stereotyping in nontraditional occupations.

CENTRAL INTELLIGENCE AGENCY SPOUSES RETIREMENT EQUITY ACT OF 1982

Legislation to permit former spouses of Central Intelligence Agency personnel to receive a pro rata share of such personnel's retirement and survivor benefits.

DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE AUTHORIZATION ACT, 1983

Legislation (1) allowing State courts to consider military retirement benefits as marital property subject to division in divorce settlements, (2) authorizing military health care, post exchange and commisary privileges for certain unremarried former spouses, and (3) permitting military members and retirees to assign survivor benefits to an already divorced spouse.

1983 SOCIAL SECURITY ACT AMENDMENTS OF 1983

Legislation liberalizing benefits for divorced spouses, surviving spouses, and divorced and disabled surviving spouses and requiring a Federal study on the implementation of earnings-sharing.

RAILROAD RETIREMENT SOLVENCY ACT OF 1983

Legislation allowing courts to include certain railroad retirement benefits in property settlements in divorce proceedings.

1984 CIVIL SERVICE SPOUSE RETIREMENT EQUITY ACT OF 1984

Legislation (1) permitting former spouses of Federal civil service employees to obtain survivor benefits either by voluntary designation of a retiring Federal employee or annuitant or pursuant to the terms of any decree of divorce or annulment or any court order or court-approved property settlement agreement incident to the decree, (2) making survivor benefits for spouses of Federal civil service employees mandatory unless both agree in writing to waive the benefits, and (3) permitting certain unremarried ex-spouses to continue participation in the Federal Employee Health Benefits Program.

DEFENSE AUTHORIZATION ACT

Legislation establishing Air Force accession goals for women and containing various provisions to enhance pension and other benefits for military spouses and former spouses.

DEFICIT REDUCTION ACT OF 1984

Legislation extending the Targeted Jobs Tax Credit, modifying certain aspects of the Aid to Families with Dependent Children and Work Incentive programs, and excluding day care provided as a benefit under a cafeteria plan from taxation as income.

EMERGENCY MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE EDUCATION AND JOBS ACT

Legislation providing for set-asides for special projects for underrepresented and underserved populations, including "females," from funds provided to State educational agencies to improve education in mathematics, science, foreign languages, and computer education.

RETIREMENT EQUITY ACT OF 1984

Legislation amending Employee Retirement Income Security Act and the Internal Revenue Code to remove difficulties faced by women both in earning their own pension and in receiving retirement income as widows and divorcees.

HUMAN SERVICES REAUTHORIZATION ACT

Legislation authorizing the Secretary of the Department of Health and Human Services to make grants to States for the establishment and expansion of State and local dependent care resource and referral systems and before and after-school child care services.

CARL D. PERKINS VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT OF 1984

Legislation reauthorizing Federal funding for vocational education through Fiscal Year 1989; targeting over half of the funds allocated to States for programs for special needs groups such as single parents and homemakers; and strengthening the role of State sex equity coordinators and giving them responsibility for administering new programs for single parents, homemakers, and young women.

SELECTED REFERENCES

Automation and the Working Woman: An Employers's Guide to the New Office, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Forthcoming.

Background Review, Women in the Military, U.S. Department of Defense, Office of Assistant Secretary of Defense for Manpower, Reserve Affairs, and Logistics, October 1981.

Bianchi, Suzanne M. and Daphne Spain, American Women: Three Decades of Change, Special Demographic Analyses, CDS-80-8, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Revised June 1984.

Binkin, Martin, America's Volunteer Military, The Brookings Institution, Washington, D.C., 1984.

Binkin, Martin and Shirley J. Bach, Women and the Military, The Brookings Institution, Washington, D.C., 1977.

The Bottom Line: Unequal Enterprise in America, Report of the President's Interagency Task Force on Women Business Owners, U.S. Department of Commerce, June 1978.

Bowe, Frank, Disabled Women in America, The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Washington, D.C.

Burud, Sandra L., Pamela R. Aschbacher, and Jacquelyn McCroskey, Employer-Supported Child Care: Investing in Human Resources, Auburn House Publishing Co., Boston, Mass., 1984.

Carey, Max and Alan Eck, "How Workers Get Their Training," Occupational Outlook Quarterly, Vol. 28, No. 4, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Winter 1984.

Chapman, Jane Roberts, Economic Realities and the Female Offender, LexingtonBooks, D.C. Heath and Company, Lexington, Mass., 1980.

Clarenbach, Kathryn F. and Marian L. Thompson, Handbook for Commissions on the Status of Women, University of Wisconsin-Extension and Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor, 1979.

Cohen, B. G. F.(ed.), Human Aspects in Office Automation, Elsevier Science Publishers B.V., Amsterdam, 1984.

Commissions for Women: Moving Into the 1980's, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau and the National Association of Commissions for Women, 1980.

Comparable Worth: Issue for the 80's, A Consultation of the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, Vol. 1-2, June 6-7, 1984.

Devens, Richard M., Jr., Carol Boyd Leon, and Debbie Sprinkle, "Employment and Unemployment in 1984: A Second Year of Strong Growth in Jobs," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 108, No. 2, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, February 1985.

Employers and Child Care: Establishing Services Through the Workplace, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Pamphlet 23, August 1982.

Employment Goals of the World Plan of Action: Developments and Issues in the United States, Report for The World Conference on the United Nations Decade for Women, 1976-1985, Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor, July 1980.

The Evolving Role of the Secretary in the Information Age, Survey of PSI Membership, Professional Secretaries International and the Minolta Corporation, PSI Research and Educational Foundation, Kansas City, Mo., 1984.

Farley, Lin, Sexual Shakedown: The Sexual Harassment of Women on the Job, McGraw-Hill, 1978.

Farm Population of the United States: 1975, Current Population Reports, Farm Population, Series P-27, No. 47, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service, and U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, September 1976.

Farm Population of the United States: 1982, Current Population Reports, Farm Population, Series P-27, No. 56, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service, and U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, November 1983.

Female Offenders: Who Are They And What Are the Problems Confronting Them?, U.S. General Accounting Office, August 23, 1979.

Fullerton, Howard N., Jr. and John Tschetter, "The 1995 Labor Force: A Second Look," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 106, No. 11, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, November 1983.

The Goal Is Economic Self-Sufficiency: Services for Displaced Homemakers, Displaced Homemakers Network, Washington, D.C., 1984.

Going Strong! Women in Defense, U.S. Department of Defense, Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Manpower Installations and Logistics, October 1984.

Guidelines on Pregnancy and Work, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, September 1977.

Hartmann, Heidi I. (ed.), Comparable Worth: New Directions for Research, National Academy Press, Washington, D.C., 1985.

Hayghe, Howard, "Married Couples: Work and Income Patterns," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 106, No. 12, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, December 1983.

Hayghe, Howard, "Working Mothers Reach Record Number in 1984," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 107, No. 12, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, December 1984.

Hearings before the United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission on Job Segregation and Wage Discrimination, Washington, D.C., April 28-30, 1980.

Hricko, Andrea with Melanie Brunt, Working for Your Life: A Woman's Guide to Job Health Hazards, University of California, Labor Occupational Health Program, and Public Citizen's Health Research Group, June 1976.

In America and in Need: Immigrant, Refugee, and Entrant Women, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Forthcoming.

Increasing the Earnings of Disadvantaged Women, National Commission for Employment Policy, Washington, D.C., Report No. 11, January 10, 1981.

Johnson, Beverly L. and Elizabeth Waldman, "Most Women Who Maintain Families Receive Poor Labor Market Returns," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 106, No. 12, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, December 1983.

Johnson, Bonnie McDaniel and Associates, Innovation in Office Systems Implementation, National Science Foundation, Washington, D.C., 1985.

Klein, Deborah Pisetzner, "Trends in Employment and Unemployment in Families," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 106, No. 12, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, December 1983.

Livernash, E. Robert (ed.), Comparable Worth: Issues and Alternatives, 2nd Edition, The Equal Employment Advisory Council, 1984.

Lott, Juanita Tamayo and Canta Pian, Beyond Stereotypes and Statistics: Emergence of Asian and Pacific American Women, Organization of Pan Asian American Women, San Diego, Calif., 1979.

MacKinnon, Catherine A., Sexual Harassment of Working Women: A Case of Sex Discrimination, Yale University Press, 1979.

Marshall, Daniel and Judith Gregory (ed.), Office Automation, Jekyll or Hyde, Proceedings of Working Women Education Fund's International Conference, National Association of Working Women, Cleveland, Ohio, 1983.

Mellor, Earl F., "Investigating the Differences in Weekly Earnings of Women and Men," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 107, No. 6, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, June 1984.

National Survey on Office Automation and the Workplace, Honeywell, Inc., Public Relations Office, Minneapolis, Minn., 1983.

Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1984-85 Edition, Bulletin 2205, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, April 1984.

Older Worker Employment Comes of Age: Practice and Potential, National Commission for Employment Policy, Washington D.C., January 1985.

Options for Conducting a Pay Equity Study of Federal Pay and Classification Systems, U.S. General Accounting Office, Report by the Comptroller General of the United States, GAO/GGD-85-37, March 1, 1985.

Pay Equity and Comparable Worth, BNA Special Report, The Bureau of National Affairs, Washington, D.C., 1984.

Pearce, Diana and Harriette McAdoo, Women and Children: Alone and in Poverty, National Advisory Council on Economic Opportunity, Washington, D.C., September 1981.

Private Sector Initiatives, Hearing before the Committee on Labor and Human Resources, U.S. Senate, Ninety-Eighth Congress, First Session, S. Hrg. 98-634, November 16, 1983.

Profile Analysis of Corporate Board Women and Their Corporations, U.S. Human Resources Corporation, San Francisco, Calif., March 1981.

Punski, Charlotte R., "Do Blue Collars Protect Working Women?" National Safety News, October 1983.

"Report of the Public Health Service Task Force on Women's Health Issues, Volume I," Public Health Reports, Vol. 100, No. 1, January-February 1985.

A Report on the Performance of Women's Safety-Toe Footwear, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, HEW Publication No. (NIOSH)76-199, July 1976.

Retirement Equity Act of 1984: Its Impact on Women, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Forthcoming.

Rix, Sara E., Older Women: The Economics of Aging, Women's Research and Education Institute of the Congressional Caucus for Women's Issues, 1984.

Rothschild, Joan (ed), Machina Ex Dea: Feminist Perspectives on Technology, Pergamon Press, New York, N.Y., 1983.

Ryan, T.A., Adult Female Offenders and Institutional Programs: A State of the Art Analysis, U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Corrections, February 28, 1984.

Sacks, Karen and Dorothy Remy (ed), My Troubles Are Going To Have Trouble with Me: Women's Everyday Toils and Triumphs at the Workplace, Rutgers University Press, New Brunswick, N.J., 1984.

Safilios-Rothschild, Constantina, Sex Role Socialization and Sex Discrimination: A Synthesis and Critique of the Literature, U.S. Department of Education, National Institute of Education, October 1979.

Scott, Joan W., "The Mechanization of Office Work," Scientific American, Vol. 247, No. 3, September 1982.

Selected NIOSH Health Issues Affecting Clerical and Secretarial Personnel, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, August 1983.

Selected NIOSH Stress Publications, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, August 1983.

Smith, James P. and Michael P. Ward, Women's Wages and Work in the Twentieth Century, Rand Corp., Santa Monica, Calif., October 1984.

The State of Small Business: A Report of the President, Transmitted to the Congress, March 1984.

Stellman, Jeanne Mager, Women's Work, Women's Health, Myths and Realities, Pantheon Books, New York, N.Y., 1977.

Summary and Analysis of the Job Training Partnership Act of 1982, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, November 1982.

Time of Change: 1983 Handbook on Women Workers, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1983.

Title IX: The Half Full, Half Empty Glass, U.S. Department of Education, National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs, Fall 1981.

Treiman, Donald J. and Heidi I. Hartmann (ed.), Women, Work, and Wages: Equal Pay for Jobs of Equal Value, National Academy Press, Washington, D.C., 1981.

U.S. Children and Their Families: Current Conditions and Recent Trends, A Report Together with Additional Views of the Select Committee on Children, Youth, and Families; Ninety-Eighth Congress, First Session, May 1983.

VDTs in the Workplace: A Study of the Effects on Employment, BNA Special Report, The Bureau of National Affairs, Washington, D.C., 1984.

The Vocational Education Study: The Final Report, U.S. Department of Education, The National Institute of Education, Vocational Education Study Publication No. 8, September 1981.

Waldman, Elizabeth, "Labor Force Statistics from a Family Perspective," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 106, No. 12, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, December 1983.

Werneke, Diana, Microelectronics and Working Women: A Literature Summary, National Research Council, Committee on Employment and Related Social Issues, National Academy Press, Washington, D.C., 1984.

Westcott, Diane Nilsen, "Blacks in the 1970's: Did They Scale the Job Ladder?," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 105, No. 6, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, June 1982.

Who's Working for Working Women, A Survey of State and Local Government Pay Equity Initiatives, Comparable Worth Project, National Committee on Pay Equity, and National Women's Political Caucus, Washington, D.C., Summer 1984.

A Woman's Guide to Apprenticeship, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1980.

Women and Office Automation: Issues for the Decade Ahead, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Forthcoming.

Women, Children, and Poverty in America, A Working Paper from the Ford Foundation, New York, N.Y., January 1985.

Women in Nontraditional Careers (WINC): Curriculum Guide, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1984.

Women in Nontraditional Jobs: A Program Model, Boston: Nontraditional Occupations Program for Women, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1978.

Women in Nontraditional Jobs: A Program Model, Denver: Better Jobs for Women, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1978.

Women in Prison: Inequitable Treatment Requires Action, Report to the Congress, U.S. General Accounting Office, Comptroller General, December 10, 1980.

Women in the Work Force: Pay Equity, Hearing Before the Joint Economic Committee, U.S. Congress, Ninety-Eighth Congress, Second Session, S. Hrg. 98-1050, April 10, 1984.

The Women Offender Apprenticeship Program: From Inmate to Skilled Craft Worker, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1980.

Women's Bureau: Meeting the Challenges of the '80's, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Forthcoming.

Young, Anne McDougall, "One-fourth of the Adult Labor Force Are College Graduates," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 108, No. 2, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, February 1985.

Young Women and Employment: What We Know and Need To Know About the School-to-Work Transition, U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1978.

Zenz, Carl, M.D., "Reproductive Risks in the Workplace," National Safety News, September 1984.

Zimmerman, Jan (ed), The Technological Woman, Praeger Press, New York, N.Y., 1983.

U.S. Department of Labor
Office of the Secretary
Women's Bureau
Washington, D.C. 20210

Official Business
Penalty for private use, $300
M-020

Postage and Fees Paid
U.S. Department of Labor
Lab 441

Third Class Mail